

**Problems encountered by  
non-native Japanese speakers in learning  
giving and receiving verbs in Japanese**

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## Abstract

Problems encountered by learners of Japanese at the Australian National University (ANU) when they learn giving and receiving verbs and benefactives in Japanese were examined. There are seven verbs defined as Japanese giving and receiving verbs, *yarū*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru*, *kudasaru*, *morau* and *itadaku*. Their auxiliaries, i.e. benefactives are *~te yaru*, *~te ageru*, *~te sashiageru*, *~te kureru*, *~te kudasaru*, *~te morau* and *~te itadaku*. In students' performance, avoidance of the use of benefactives is a more significant problem than errors and is more significant in spoken than in written language. Moreover, two different kinds of avoidance occur, the avoidance at the end of the predicate and, more frequently, avoidance in the middle. The possible causes of avoidance are simplification and communication strategies. The correlation between avoidance and the developmental stages is also identified. There are three things that must be learnt in order to correctly use Japanese giving and receiving verbs and benefactives: the concept of benefactives, the syntactic structure and a discourse rule. Finally, some suggestions are made for language teachers from the point of view of both linguistics and second language acquisition.

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## Note on transcription

The romanisation system employed in this thesis is basically the Hepburn system. However, long vowels are written double; 'aa, ii, uu, ee, oo' instead of 'ā, ī, ū, ē, ō'. In addition, a syllabic nasal is written 'N'.

An asterisk '\*' at the beginning of the sentence indicates an ungrammatical form or example. A question mark '?' indicates an uncertain form or example which many native Japanese speakers cannot tell whether or not it is grammatical.

Finally, abbreviations used in text are shown below.

NOM - nominative case

ACC - accusative case

DAT - dative case

PASS - passive voice

HON - honorifics

BEN - benefactives



## Chapter 1

### Introduction

The aim of this thesis is threefold. First, it is to identify the problem areas of complexity and possible difficulties of giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries in Japanese. Second, it is to determine problems actually encountered by learners of Japanese. Third, it is to analyse possible main causes of the problems.

Finally, I will suggest some strategies which language teachers should employ with regard to teaching giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries.

#### 1.1 Teaching new concepts

All language reflects the society in which it evolved. The Japanese language is no exception. It is important for language learners to understand not only the grammatical features of a target language but also the ideas and concepts supporting these features. Alfonso and Niimi (1981) state that "what is relevant or irrelevant, what is mentioned or not mentioned and what is implied in a sentence depends to a large extent on the view of the world held by that particular culture on its social structure and conventions, on its national traditions and history". If students of a language learnt only the grammatical features without learning the idea or the concept underlying those grammatical points, they could not produce appropriate performances. Hence it is said that 'knowing that' and 'knowing how' are quite different. It is, therefore, necessary for language teachers to teach concepts underlying the target language as well as the grammar.

In language teaching, one of the most difficult areas to teach are the new concepts which do not occur in the native language of the learner. The problems caused by learning a new concept, in general, appear not only as errors but also as avoidance in

the interlanguage (i.e. the language produced by the learner). The reason learners make errors and commit avoidance is the conflict between their concept of how language operates, i.e. as in the case of their first language, and that of the target language, and between the grammatical points taught and the speech habits of their own language (Mowatt, p. c.). Thus, it is difficult to teach a new concept which conflicts with the nature of their first language and speech habits.

Regarding teaching Japanese, it is more problematic to teach the unique concepts in the Japanese language than to teach the syntactic structure, especially to native English speakers. The Japanese giving and receiving verbs (e.g. *ageru*, *kureru*, *morau*, etc.) are not an exception to this. These verbs reflect the speaker's subjectivity, the direction of the movement of an object or a favour, the group membership and so on. Therefore, it is said that the mastery of these verbs is one of the most difficult areas to learn in Japanese. Nevertheless, these verbs are often the first area to be taught involving concepts which have much wider application throughout the language.

'Giving and receiving' by itself is a basic concept. It is essential for learners to be able to express it correctly in Japanese using giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries. There is a tendency for learners to become confused with the usage of giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries, and great care must be taken to ensure that they are used correctly. It is, therefore, extremely important that they are taught effectively without confusing learners. This is one of the major areas in which a relatively simple semantic or syntactic concept in English has to be translated into a very complicated syntactic structure in Japanese.

I would now like to focus on the unique concepts underlying Japanese giving and receiving verbs as well as the syntactic features.

Horiguchi (1984) worked on errors in expressions involving giving and receiving in Japanese. She analysed three questions associated with giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries in Japanese proficiency tests held between 1979 and 1981, and expressions involving giving and receiving verbs in compositions written by learners of



Japanese at Tsukuba University. She then reports that only fifty percent of learners at intermediate level could handle giving and receiving verbs and benefactives correctly. Her research also reveals that both errors and avoidance are noticeable aspects associated with giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries.

Mizutani (1985) also points out that many errors and avoidance involving giving and receiving verbs and their forms as auxiliaries are found in the interlanguage of native English speakers who learnt Japanese. According to her, this is caused by the different perspectives of expressions: in English, there is the tendency to describe an event objectively whereas in Japanese, events are expressed from the basis of the speaker's perspective.

I am particularly interested in revealing specific characteristics in the interlanguage of students at the Australian National University (ANU), where I have been teaching Japanese. In addition, I would like to analyse whether those errors or avoidances are random, as there have been no discussions to date regarding the developmental stages of learning giving and receiving verbs.

## 1.2 What peculiarities do 'giving and receiving' verbs and their auxiliaries have in Japanese?

It is a basic event for human beings 'to give an object' or 'to receive an object'. These verbs, as a pair, describe the same event from different view points. There are other examples of pairs, for instance, 'to speak' and 'to listen', 'to go' and 'to come', 'to lend' and 'to borrow', 'to sell' and 'to buy', 'to teach' and 'to learn' and so on (Okutsu, 1985).

When teaching Japanese as a second language the grammatical point is called *yari-morai*. *Yari-morai* is normally translated as 'giving and receiving' in English. I will use the abbreviation 'GRVs' for the Japanese verbs for giving and receiving.

'Giving and receiving' in this context describes the performance of moving an object or someone doing or giving a favour for someone. Seven verbs and belong to this point in Japanese. They are *yarū*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru*, *kudasaru*, *morau*, and *itadaku*, with the auxiliaries; *~te yarū*, *~te ageru*, *~te sashiageru*, *~te kureru*, *~te kudasaru*, *~te morau*, and *~te itadaku*. These auxiliaries are called benefactives (Chapter 2). Each GRV and its benefactive has a polite form (not to be confused with the honorific), which can be formed by suffixing *masu* to the verb stem. The past tense of these verbs, which adds *ta* (*mashita* for the polite form) to the verb stem as a suffix, is the most commonly used form, although it should be noted that some of them are irregular. The following table shows the plain forms and the polite forms in the present and past tenses.

- (1) The plain forms and the polite forms of the present and past tenses of the GRVs

Plain-Present	Plain-Past	Polite-Present	Polite-Past
yarū	yatta	yarimasu	yarimashita
ageru	ageta	agemasu	agemashita
kureru	kureta	kuremasu	kuremashita
morau	moratta	moraimasu	moraimashita
sashiageru	sashiageta	sashiagemasu	sashiagemashita
kudasaru	kudasatta	kudasaimasu	kudasaimashita
itadaku	itadaita	itadakimasu	itadakimashita

There are some other words (synonyms) for GRVs, such as *ataeru*, *okuru*, *sazukeru*, *eru* and so on. However, hereafter, because they are commonly used, I shall use the seven verbs *yarū*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru*, *kudasaru*, *morau* and *itadaku* as representative expressions for the movement of an object or a favour in this thesis. There are differences in use between dialects. However, since it is Standard Japanese that is taught to foreign learners, I will only discuss the use of these verbs in this dialect.



Japanese is a speaker-oriented (or subject-oriented) language (Mizutani & Mizutani 1987, Kuno 1976, Kuno & Kaburaki 1977, Morita 1988). This means that the speaker's point of view is reflected by the language when looking at an event. In other words, the speaker has to describe an event from the speaker's point of view. The GRVs and benefactives exemplify this aspect of Japanese. Four striking features arise from this in terms of GRVs and benefactives.

- Feature I     They reflect the direction of the movement of an object or a favour.
- II     They are determined by the group membership.
- III    They reflect hierarchical relationships in the society.
- IV    They are used to reflect the speaker's attitude towards an event.

Feature I indicates that the speaker plays a central role in the movement. *Ageru*, for instance, is used when 'I give something to someone' while *kureru* is used when 'someone gives something to me' (Section 2.2.2).

Feature II implies that people are divided into two groups, an 'in-group' and an 'out-group'. People in the in-group are more closely related to the speaker and the other people involved in the action of giving and receiving are in the out-group. This concept is discussed under speaker's empathy (Section 2.2.3).

Regarding Feature III, there are special honorific words for giving and receiving when a superior is involved. For instance, *sashiageru* is used instead of *ageru* when 'I give something to a superior' (Section 2.3). It should be noted that how the features II and III interact each other is not the main scope of this thesis.

Feature IV requires benefactives which show the speaker's attitudes towards an event when used in thanking and showing gratitude or indebtedness (Section 2.4).

Thus, Japanese GRVs and benefactives have particular aspects which can be one of the most difficult areas to acquire for learners of Japanese, both linguistically and conceptually.

### 1.3 Why is it important to teach the complexities of GRVs and benefactives to learners?

There are two main reasons for teaching the complexities of GRVs and benefactives to learners; naturalness and avoiding offensiveness. First, I will discuss the naturalness. Two examples are shown below.

- (2) Tomadachi - ga     **ki**     - te kureta.  
friend         - NOM come - BENEFACTIVE-PAST  
(My friend came for me.)

- (3) Tomodachi - ga     **kita**.  
friend         - NOM come-PAST  
(My friend came.)

Sentence (2) reflects the speaker's attitude towards an event in which a friend of the speaker visited him/her and s/he was glad. Sentence (3), on the other hand, describes the event objectively without indicating any of the speaker's feelings. Benefactives are often used in thanking or showing gratitude or indebtedness. As the speaker's subjectivity is omitted in sentence (3), native Japanese speakers feel uncomfortable that the gratitude or indebtedness has not been expressed. In brief, sentence (2) sounds more natural than sentence (3).

Next is 'offensiveness'. Benefactives should be used frequently. However, there is one particular case where they should not be used. When offering to give a favour to other people, especially a superior, the benefactive, i.e. *~te ageru*, should not be used.

- (4) SeNsei, koohii - o     oireshimashooka.  
teacher, coffee - ACC shall I pour  
(Teacher, shall I pour you a cup of coffee?)

(5) ?SeNsei, koohii - o ire-te agemashooka.

teacher, coffee - ACC shall I pour-BENEFACTIVE

(Teacher, shall I pour a cup of coffee for you?)

The translations of the above two sentences are nearly the same. However, sentence (5) sounds condescending in Japanese because the wording suggests that the teacher is helpless and incapable of pouring a cup of coffee. It is extremely impolite to the Japanese ear. This is a problem at discourse level because sentence (5) is grammatically correct.

Interestingly, Tateoka (1989) reports that native Japanese speakers are not tolerant of the misuse or absence of GRVs and benefactives because they frequently involve the description of thanking or showing gratitude as well as requesting.

Therefore, it is important to teach these GRVs and benefactives, not only to increase naturalness but also to make the learner aware of the importance of the appropriate use at discourse level.

#### 1.4 Defining verbs 'to give' and 'to receive' in English

One of the problems associated with the verbs 'to give' and 'to receive' is that in English these words have various meanings. In Chambers Dictionary (Kirkpatrick, 1983), for instance, some meanings of 'to give' are ; 'to bestow; to impart; to yield; to donate; to permit; to afford; to furnish; to pay or render, as thanks; to pronounce, as a decision; to show, as a result; to apply, as oneself; to allow to admit'. Also, 'to receive' means ; 'to take, get, or catch, usually more or less passively; to have given or delivered to one; to experience; to take in or on; to admit; to accept' etc. I am only interested in the meaning which corresponds to the meaning of Japanese GRVs. The wide-range of use in English of the verb 'to give' helps to explain some of the errors I will discuss in Chapter 3.



Basic English giving and receiving verbs do not convey any information on the hierarchical relationships and the group membership, whereas Japanese verbs for giving and receiving have to agree with those aspects.

### Giving and receiving verbs and benefactives in Japanese

It is now necessary to discuss the characteristics of GRVs and benefactives in more detail.

The problems, areas of complexity and possible difficulties involving giving and receiving verbs (GRVs) and benefactives in Japanese will be identified in this chapter. They will be discussed from two different aspects: a linguistic aspect and as an aspect of second language acquisition (SLA). The linguistic aspect consists of two categories: GRVs (giving and receiving of a concrete object) and benefactives (giving and receiving of a favour).

As I have stated in Chapter 1, the events related to 'to give' and 'to receive' are represented by seven verbs in Japanese (Kuno 1973, Mizumori & Mizumori 1987, Gotoh 1985). There are five lexical verbs for giving, i.e. *yaru*, *agaru*, *morawaru*, *kureru*, and *kudasaru*. Of the five, two are honorifics used to refer to actions of respected people. The fact that there are five lexical verbs for giving emerges from some peculiarities of GRVs in Japanese. The hierarchical relations in the society and the group membership control the choice of these verbs as well as the direction of the movement of a concrete object. In addition, there are two lexical verbs for receiving, i.e. *morau* and *ukeru*, the latter being honorific. Thus, there is no single word corresponding to each English word 'to give' and 'to receive'. These characteristics of giving and receiving verbs in Japanese are summarised below (1). (Note: The distinction between the two non-honorifics for giving, i.e. *yaru* and *agaru*, is discussed in 2.2.6.)

## Chapter 2

### Giving and receiving verbs and benefactives in Japanese

#### 2.1 Introduction

The problems, areas of complexity and possible difficulties involving giving and receiving verbs (GRVs) and benefactives in Japanese will be identified in this chapter. They will be discussed from two different aspects: a linguistic aspect and as an aspect of second language acquisition (SLA). The linguistic aspect consists of two categories: GRVs (giving and receiving of a concrete object) and benefactives (giving and receiving of a favour).

As I have stated in Chapter 1, the events related to 'to give' and 'to receive' are represented by seven verbs in Japanese (Kuno 1973, Mizutani & Mizutani 1987, Okutsu 1985). There are five lexical verbs for giving, i.e. *yaru*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru*, and *kudasaru*. Of the five, two are honorifics used to refer to actions of respected people. The fact that there are five lexical verbs for giving emerges from some peculiarities of GRVs in Japanese. The hierarchical relations in the society and the group membership control the choice of these verbs as well as the direction of the movement of a concrete object. In addition, there are two lexical verbs for receiving, i.e. *morau* and *itadaku*, the latter being honorific. Thus, there is no single word corresponding to each English word 'to give' and 'to receive'. These characteristics of giving and receiving verbs in Japanese are summarised below (1). (Note: The distinction between the two non-honorifics for giving, i.e. *yaru* and *ageru*, is discussed in 2.2.6.)



(1) Giving and receiving verbs in Japanese

English	Japanese	
	Non-honorifics (Plain forms)	Honorifics
to give	yaru ageru kureru	sashiageru kudasaru
to receive to be given	morau	itadaku

2.1.1 Four sets of contrasting groups

The seven verbs for giving and receiving in Japanese, *yaru*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru*, *kudasaru*, *morau*, and *itadaku* can be grouped as 'Giver vs. Receiver', 'in-group (*miuchi*) vs. out-group (*yosomono*)' and 'honorifics vs. non-honorifics (plain form)' (Okutsu, 1985). In addition to these three contrasting groups, it is also possible to categorise these seven verbs into a group in which the speaker must be either the Giver or the Receiver, and another group in which the speaker is neither the Giver nor the Receiver.

From the point of view of 'Giver vs. Receiver', *yaru*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru* and *kudasaru* belong to the Giver group because the subject of these verbs is the Giver. On the other hand, *morau* and *itadaku* belong to the Receiver group because the subjects are the Receiver.

Giver		Receiver
<div> yaru ageru sashiageru kureru kudasaru </div>	vs.	<div> morau itadaku </div>

From the point of view of 'in-group vs. out-group', *yaru*, *ageru* and *sashiageru* are categorised as the in-group because the movement of the objects is expressed as from in-group to out-group. The other five verbs are categorised as out-group because the movement of the object is from out-group to in-group.

In-group		Out-group
<div> yaru ageru sashiageru </div>	vs.	<div> kureru kudasaru morau itadaku </div>

The next contrasting groups are 'honorifics vs. non-honorifics'. *Sashiageru*, *kudasaru* and *itadaku* are honorifics while *yaru*, *ageru*, *kureru* and *morau* are non-honorifics of the verbs.

Honorifics		Non-honorifics
<div> sashiageru kudasaru itadaku </div>	vs.	<div> yaru ageru kureru morau </div>

In the final contrasting group, *sashiageru*, *kureru*, *kudasaru* and *itadaku* must involve the speaker in describing an event while *yaru*, *ageru* and *morau* can also describe an event between non-speakers.

Either Giver or Receiver  
(must involve speaker)

Possibly neither Giver nor Receiver  
(may not involve speaker)

sashiageru  
kureru  
kudasaru  
itadaku

vs.

yaru  
ageru  
morau

### 2.1.2 Main grammatical characteristics

The main grammatical characteristics are 1) a case marking system, 2) the concept of 'speaker's empathy', 3) omission, 4) lack of passivisation, 5) honorifics and 6) benefactives. Before I discuss the case marking system of GRVs, a brief word about the word order and case markers is required.

## 2.2 Non-honorific GRVs

### 2.2.1 Word order and case marking

Here, the word order in Japanese, the case marking system and the case markers are shown.

Japanese is a SOV language. It means that word order in Japanese is basically subject, object and verb.

(2) Yumiko - ga hoN - o yoN - da.

A (SUBJ) O (OBJ) (VERB)

Yumiko - SUBJ book - OBJ read - PAST

(Yumiko read a book.)

Sentence (2) shows that Japanese uses postpositions as case markers.

- (3) Takashi - ga warat - ta.  
S (SUBJ) (VERB)  
Takashi - SUBJ laugh - PAST  
(Takashi laughed.)

Each of 'A', 'O', and 'S' above has the grammatical function described below (Andrews, 1985).

('NP' stands for noun phrase and 'PTV' stands for primary transitive verb.)

**A** means that "if an NP is serving as argument of a two-argument verb, and receiving the morphological and syntactic treatment normally accorded to an Agent of a PTV, we shall say that it has the grammatical function **A**."

**O** means that "if it is an argument of a verb with two or more arguments receiving the treatment normally accorded to the Patient of a PTV, we shall say that it has the grammatical function **O**."

**S** means that "an NP in an intransitive sentence that is receiving the treatment normally accorded to the single argument of a one-argument predicate will be said to have **S** function."

Sentences (2) and (3) show that **A** and **S** take the same case marker *ga* and **O** takes a different case marker *o*. Therefore, Japanese is a language which basically has a nominative/accusative case marking system. In this case, the postposition *ga*, which is also a subject marker, indicates nominative case and *o* (and others), are object markers, indicating accusative case.

Postposition *ni*, which is sometimes used as an indirect object marker, has an interesting characteristic. Teramura (1982) points out that the case marker *ni* in Japanese has a feature showing two directions, 'to' and 'from'. I shall adopt the view that *ni* indicates dative case as a formal category because "the dative case typically expresses an INDIRECT OBJECT relationship" (Crystal, 1991). For that reason, the dative case covers both recipient and giver. This can also cover directional motion meanings.



(4) Yumiko - ga Takashi - ni hoN - o okut - ta.  
 Yumiko - NOM Takashi - DAT books - ACC send - PAST  
 (Yumiko sent books to Takashi.)

(5) Yumiko - ga Takashi - ni hoN - o kari - ta.  
 Yumiko - NOM Takashi - DAT books - ACC borrow - PAST  
 (Yumiko borrowed books from Takashi.)

## 2.2.2 Case marking system

The sentence structure for the verbs for giving and receiving concrete objects is discussed in this section. I will discuss the situation where the speaker is involved and then I will expand the discussion to include interactions between people other than the speaker in Section 2.2.3 on 'speaker's empathy'.

### 2.2.2.1 *Yaru*, *ageru* and *kureru*

The verb 'to give' in English usually takes three arguments; an agent, a recipient and a theme. The Japanese verbs *yarū*, *ageru*, and *kureru* work the same way and also have a valency of three. Part of the lexical entry of *yarū*, *ageru* and *kureru* is shown below.

(6) <i>yarū</i> , <i>ageru</i> :	Verb, 'give'	Agent	Recipient	Theme --- semantically
		SUBJ	INDIRECT	OBJ --- syntactically
&				
<i>kureru</i>			OBJ	

The lexical entry shows that the meaning of these three verbs is 'to give' in English. In addition, it indicates that the agent is the subject of the sentence, the recipient is the indirect object and the theme is the object in the sentence which has *yarū*, *ageru* or *kureru* as the verb.

The typical sentence structures of *yaru* and *ageru* and *kureru* are as follows:

**G** = Giver (the agent)

**R** = Receiver (the recipient)

**T** = Thing (the theme)

(7) **G - ga R - ni T - o yaru/ageru** 'G gives T to R.'  
 - NOM - DAT - ACC give

G = the speaker (R ≠ the speaker)

(8) **G - ga R - ni T - o kureru** 'G gives T to R.'  
 - NOM - DAT - ACC give

R = the speaker (G ≠ the speaker)

The sentence structures of (7) and (8) are the same. The crucial syntactic difference is the role of the speaker. R must not be the speaker in (7) and G must not be the speaker in (8). In short, *yaru* and *ageru* mean that 'I give something to him/her,' whereas *kureru* means that 'someone gives something to me'. In other words *kureru* is used for 'incoming' giving while *yaru* and *ageru* are used for 'outgoing' giving (Backhouse, 1993).

The pivot of the verb (i.e. *yaru*, *ageru* and *kureru*) is I/the speaker, and the direction of moving an object between 'I' and other people is indicated by the choice of verb. When the verb *yaru* and *ageru* are used, a thing moves from I/the speaker to other people and with the verb *kureru*, a thing moves from other people towards I/the speaker.

Alternatively, *yaru* and *ageru* are used when an event is observed from the point of view of the subject because I/the speaker is in the subject position. *Kureru*, on the other hand, is used when an event is observed from the point of view of the dative object because I/the speaker is in the indirect-object position. In this sense, it may be said that

the verbs *yaru* and *ageru* are subject-centred and the verb *kureru* is dative object-centred (Kuno 1976, Kuno & Kaburaki 1977).

Some examples of correct and incorrect use are shown below.

- (9) Watashi - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.  
 I - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
 (I gave apples to Takashi.)

- (10) \*Takashi - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.  
 Takashi - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
 (Takashi gave apples to me.)

- (11) Takashi - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.  
 Takashi - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
 (Takashi gave apples to me.)

- (12) \*Watashi - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.  
 I - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
 (I gave apples to Takashi.)

Sentence (10) is not acceptable because the recipient should not be the speaker.

Sentence (12) is not acceptable because the giver should not be the speaker.

#### 2.2.2.2 *Morau*

*Morau* is the non-honorific for receiving. Part of the lexical entry of *morau* is shown below. *Morau* also takes three arguments and so this is also a verb which has three valencies.

- (13) *morau* : Verb, 'receive' Agent Recipient Theme --- semantically  
 INDIRECT SUBJ OBJ --- syntactically  
 OBJ



The lexical entry above shows that the meaning of *morau* is 'to receive'. It also explains that the agent is the indirect object, the recipient is the subject and the theme is the object.

The typical sentence structure is as follows:

- (14) **R - ga      G - ni      T - o      morau      'R receives T from G.'**  
                  - NOM      - DAT      - ACC      receive  
                  R = the speaker      (G ≠ speaker)

In the sentence pattern of *morau*, the dative case is used for the agent because the giver is the source of the event. So, *morau* means that 'I receive something from someone'.

An example of correct and incorrect use is shown below.

- (15) Watashi - ga      Takashi - ni      riNgo - o      morat - ta.  
                  I                   - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST  
                  (I received apples from Takashi.)

- (16) \*Takashi - ga      watashi - ni      riNgo - o      morat - ta.  
                  Takashi - NOM me                   - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST  
                  (Takashi received apples from me.)

Sentence (16) violates the sentence structure (14), hence, it is not acceptable. A thing moves from other people towards I/the speaker. It is obvious that the sentences (11) 'Takashi-ga watashi-ni riNgo-o kure-ta (Takashi gave apples to me).' and (15) express the same event from different viewpoints.

Thus, the verb *morau* can be said to be subject-centred because the action is looked at from the point of view of the subject.

### 2.2.3 Speaker's empathy

I will now expand the discussion to referring to other people's giving and receiving a concrete object, namely an interaction between people other than the speaker. When describing other people's giving and receiving something, it is necessary to identify oneself with a person (Mizutani & Mizutani, 1987). There is also no way to describe an event associated with giving and receiving between people objectively. The speaker must associate his/her empathy with a person in the subject position or one in the indirect object position and then, must describe the event from either the subject position or the indirect object position (Kuno & Kaburaki, 1977). Therefore, the speaker's 'empathy' is required.

#### 2.2.3.1 What is speaker's empathy?

The definition of the 'speaker's empathy' is identifying oneself with the participants of an event (Kuno, 1976). I shall use this definition in this thesis.

The speaker's empathy is also related to the concept of someone who belongs to the speaker. Teramura (1982) emphasises that this differs from the grammatical concept of 'person' in English because the concept of the speaker's empathy is relative rather than absolute. It means that the notion of first, second and third person does not apply to the concept of the speaker's empathy in these four non-honorific GRVs.

The question now arises as to who this someone who belongs to the speaker is. They are normally people whom the speaker recognises as close to him/her. They are usually the speaker's family members, close friends, members in the same workplace group and so on. These members can be labelled in-group in contrast to others who can be labelled as out-group (Backhouse 1993, Kinsui 1989, Okutsu 1985).

However, an out-group person may switch to being an in-group person when an outer out-group is considered. Examining the following two examples, the speaker's attitudes towards *uchino shachoo* (the president of my company) are different. *Uchino*

*shachoo* is an in-group member in sentence (17) because *uchino shachoo* is closer to the speaker than *Sonii no shachoo* (the president of Sony). Sentence (19), on the other hand, is ungrammatical. *Uchino shachoo* is an out-group member in sentence (19) because the speaker's mother is much closer to him/her than the president in his/her company. Sentence (18) is a grammatical form of sentence (19). In this case, the membership of the in-group and out-group is not fixed.

(17) Sonii-no shachoo - ga **uchino shachoo** - ni riNgo - o **kureta**.

Sony's president - NOM my president - DAT apples - ACC give-PAST

(The president of Sony gave apples to the president in my company.)

(18) Watashino haha - ga **uchino shachoo** - ni riNgo - o **ageta**.

my mother - NOM my president - DAT apples - ACC give-PAST

(My mother gave apples to the president of my company.)

(19) \*Watashino haha - ga **uchino shachoo** - ni riNgo - o **kureta**.

my mother - NOM my president - DAT apples - ACC give-PAST

(My mother gave apples to the president of my company.)

Now, the typical sentence structures of *yaru*, *ageru* and *kureru* have to be changed.

(20) **G - ga R - ni T - o yaru/ageru** 'G gives T to R.'

- NOM - DAT - ACC give

G = the speaker or someone who belongs to the speaker

R ≠ speaker or someone who belongs to the speaker

(21) **G - ga R - ni T - o kureru** 'G gives T to R.'

- NOM - DAT - ACC give

R = the speaker or someone who belongs to the speaker

G ≠ speaker or someone who belongs to the speaker

- (22) **R - ga      G - ni      T - o      morau      'R receives T from G.'**  
              - NOM        - DAT        - ACC    receive

R = the speaker or someone who belongs to the speaker

G ≠ speaker or someone who belongs to the speaker

Kuno (1973) points out an interesting phenomenon. Observing sentences (23), (24) and (25), we can see how the speaker's empathy works.

- (23) Takashi - ga    **otooto**        - ni    riNgo - o    kure - ta.  
        Takashi - NOM **my** brother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
        (Takashi gave apples to my brother.)

- (24) \*Takashi - ga    **otooto**        - ni    riNgo - o    kure - ta.  
        Takashi - NOM **his** brother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
        (Takashi gave apples to his brother.)

- (25) ?Yumiko - ga    Takashi - ni    riNgo - o    kure - ta.  
        Yumiko - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
        (Yumiko gave apples to Takashi.)

Hence, *otooto* in sentence (23) is in the speaker's side (in-group), therefore, this sentence is acceptable. If the *otooto* in sentence (24) refers to Takashi's brother, sentence (24) is not grammatical because Takashi's brother is obviously out-group to the speaker. So in sentence (25), if *Takashi* is the **speaker's** brother, the sentence will be acceptable.

#### 2.2.3.2 Three principles on the speaker's empathy and grammatical relations

When investigating the speaker's empathy based on the concept of in-group and out-group, further examination of the grammatical relations of GRVs is required.

The three principles relating to speaker's empathy (Kuno 1976) are listed below.



(I) *The Ban on Conflicting Empathy Foci*

A single sentence cannot have more than one focus of the speaker's empathy.

(II) *Speech-Act Empathy Hierarchy*

It is not possible for the speaker to empathise more with someone else than with himself.

Speaker/Hearer  $\geq$  someone else

(III) *The Surface Structure Empathy Hierarchy*

It is easiest for the speaker to empathise with the referent of the subject: It is next easiest for him to empathise with the referent of the object: but it is next to impossible for him to empathise with the referent of the passive by agentive.

Subject  $\geq$  Object  $\geq$  .....  $\geq$  Passive By-Agentive (Kuno 1976:252)

Now, let us observe the following sentences. It should be noted that Yumiko and Takashi in the following sentences are members of the out-group and are not superior to each other. Both are children of the neighborhood. Although sociologically members of the out-group, as children they are linguistically treated as members of the in-group. (The distinction between in-group and out-group is discussed in 2.2.3.1. There are many complex matters surrounding the issue of inferiority/superiority which further compounds the difficulties faced by non-native speakers of Japanese.)

- (26) a Haha - ga ototoo - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.  
mother - NOM my brother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST  
(Mother gave apples to my brother.)

- b \*Haha - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.  
mother - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST  
(Mother gave apples to me.)

- c Haha - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.  
mother - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST  
(Mother gave apples to Takashi.)

d \*Takashi - ga ototoo - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.

Takashi - NOM my brother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(Takashi gave apples to my brother.)

e Takashi - ga Yumiko - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.

Takashi - NOM Yumiko - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(Takashi gave apples to Yumiko.)

(27) a Haha - ga ototoo - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.

mother - NOM my brother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(Mother gave apples to my brother.)

b \*Watashi - ga haha - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.

I - NOM mother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(I gave apples to my mother.)

c \*Haha - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.

mother - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(Mother gave apples to Takashi.)

d Takashi - ga haha - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.

Takashi - NOM mother - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(Takashi gave apples to my mother.)

e \*Takashi - ga Yumiko - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.

Takashi - NOM Yumiko - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST

(Takashi gave apples to Yumiko.)

(28) a Haha - ga ototoo - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.

mother - NOM my brother - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST

(Mother received apples from my brother.)

b \*Haha - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.

mother - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST

(Mother received apples from me.)

c Haha - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.  
 mother - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST  
 (Mother received apples from Takashi.)

d Takashi - ga ootoo - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.  
 Takashi - NOM my brother - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST  
 (Takashi received apples from my brother.)

e Takashi - ga Yumiko - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.  
 Takashi - NOM Yumiko - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST  
 (Takashi received apples from Yumiko.)

Let us now examine those cases where the nominative/subject and the dative/indirect object are, or are not, members of the in-group.

(29) Speaker's empathy

	NOM/ Subject	DAT/Indirect Object	A (yaru/ageru)	B (kureru)	C (morau)
a	in-group (mother)	in-group (my brother)	YES	YES	YES
b	in-group (mother)	in-group (the speaker)	NO	_____	NO
	in-group (the speaker)	in-group (mother)	_____	NO	_____
c	in-group (mother)	out-group (Takashi)	YES	NO	YES
d	out-group (Takashi)	in-group (mother)	NO	YES	NO
e	out-group (Takashi)	out-group (Yumiko)	YES	NO	YES

Columns A to C refer to sentence groups (26) to (28), respectively.



To sum up, although consideration of the speaker's empathy is required, the restriction, according to Kuno (1973) on G and R are simply shown below.

- (30) **G - ga    R - ni    T - o    yaru/ageru    'G gives T to R.'**  
               - NOM    - DAT    - ACC    give  
               R ≠ the speaker

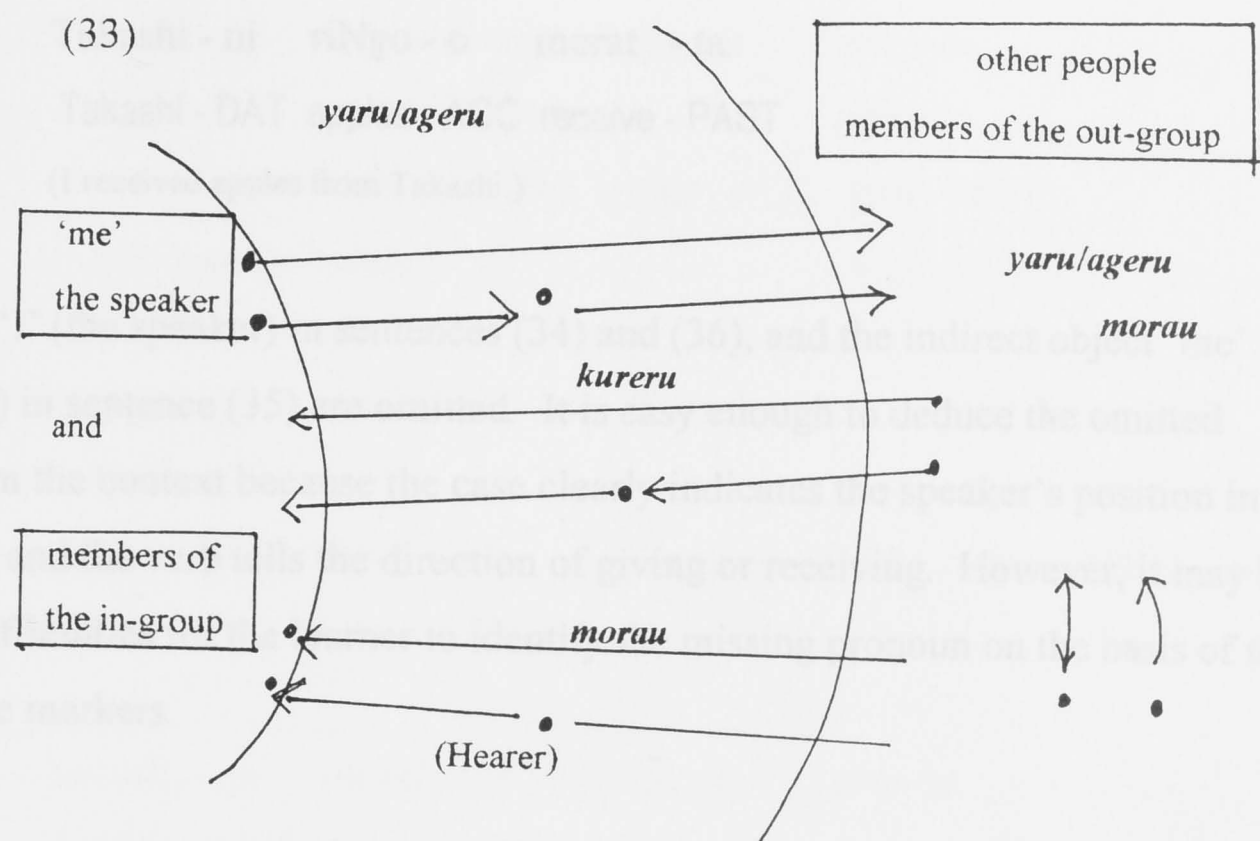
- (31) **G - ga    R- ni    T - o    kureru    'G gives T to R.'**  
               - NOM    - DAT    - ACC    give  
               G ≠ the speaker

- (32) **R - ga    G - ni    T - o    morau    'R receives T from G.'**  
               - NOM    - DAT    - ACC    receive  
               G ≠ the speaker

The top row in the table is grammatical. The difference is just the speaker's empathy. The nature of the verbs and the surface structure empathy hierarchy (III) (Section 2.2.3.2) explain the difference. For instance, in (26a) and (28a), the speaker's empathy is on the mother's side rather than the brother's while in sentence (27a), the speaker is describing the event by placing himself/herself closer to 'my brother' than to 'my mother'.

Another significant thing is, the verbs *yaru*, *ageru* and *morau* can describe the action of giving and receiving not only between in-group and out-group but also among members of out-groups. The verb *kureru* cannot describe the action of giving and receiving among members of an out-group. It can only describe the action between a member of the in-group and the out-group. Therefore, *yaru*, *ageru* and *morau* have a wider range of usage than *kureru*.

In response to the above fact, Teramura (1982a) draws the model of the nature of these verbs shown below.



To conclude the discussion of 'speaker's empathy', the concept of in-group and out-group in the speaker's empathy is not particularly related to the semantic role. From the syntactic point of view, the speaker's empathy is attached to different cases in each verb and this is always reflected in an event related to giving and receiving. Hereafter, when discussing 'the speaker' in this thesis, this will include people who belong to the speaker's side.

#### 2.2.4 Omission

The syntax in GRVs in Japanese has a clear case marking system. This can lead to the omission of an argument.

- (34) Takashi - ni riNgo - o yat - ta/age - ta.  
 Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.  
 (I gave apples to Takashi.)

- (35) Takashi - ga riNgo - o kure - ta.  
 Takashi - NOM apples - ACC give - PAST.  
 (Takashi gave apples to me.)

- (36) Takashi - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.  
 Takashi - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST  
 (I received apples from Takashi.)

The subject 'I' (the speaker) in sentences (34) and (36), and the indirect object 'me' (the speaker) in sentence (35) are omitted. It is easy enough to deduce the omitted pronoun from the context because the case clearly indicates the speaker's position in the sentence and the verb tells the direction of giving or receiving. However, it may be one of the difficulties for the learner to identify the missing pronoun on the basis of the verb and case markers.

#### 2.2.5 Passivisation

These four verbs strongly indicate the direction of the movement and the case to which the speaker's empathy is fixed. Therefore, it is impossible to passivise them in Japanese. Before observing some sentences, I will first briefly explain passivisation in Japanese. As Japanese is an agglutinating language, the verbal morpheme (suffix) - **areru** (-**areta** for past tense) is attached to the stem of the verb in order to make the passive voice. For instance, the verb *nageru* (to throw) becomes *nager-areru* (to be thrown) by adding the verbal suffix *areru* to the verb stem *nager*. It should be noted that the verb *morau* has a slightly different inflection, i.e. *morau* becomes *moraw-areru* by adding the verbal suffix *areru* to the verb stem *moraw*.

- (37) Yumiko - ga ishi - o Takashi - ni nage - ta.  
 Yumiko - NOM stone - ACC Takashi - DAT throw - PAST  
 (Yumiko threw a stone at Takashi.)

- (38) Takashi - ga Yumiko - niyotte ishi - o nager - are - ta.  
 Takashi - NOM Yumiko - by stone - ACC throw - PASS - PAST  
 (Takashi had a stone thrown at him by Yumiko.)

Now let us observe the following sentences. Sentence (9), (11) and (15) are reproduced below for convenience.



(9) Watashi - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o yat - ta

age - ta.

I - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.

(I gave apples to Takashi.)

(39) \*RiNgo - ga watashi - niyotte Takashi - ni yar - are - ta.

ager - are - ta.

apples - NOM me - by Takashi - DAT give - PASS - PAST

(Apples were given by me to Takashi.)

(11) Takashi - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o kure - ta.

Takashi - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC give - PAST.

(Takashi gave apples to me.)

(40) \*RiNgo - ga Takashi - niyotte watashi - ni kure - rare - ta.

apples - NOM Takashi - by me - DAT give - PASS - PAST.

(Apples were given by Takashi to me.)

(15) Watashi - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o morat - ta.

I - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC receive - PAST

(I received apples from Takashi.)

(41) \*RiNgo - ga watashi - niyotte Takashi - ni moraw - are - ta.

apples - NOM me - by Takashi - ACC receive - PASS - PAST.

(Apples were received by me from Takashi.)

Sentences (39), (40) and (41) are ungrammatical. The interactions in sentences (39), (40) and (41) occur between an in-group member and an out-group member, and passivisation does not happen in this situation. Even if the interaction occurred among out-group members, the passivisation is not applicable. Sentences containing GRVs cannot be passivised except in a few particular situations (e.g. *Konoinu-wa morawareta*. 'A puppy was received by someone'). In fact, sentence (11) corresponds to sentence (15) (Miyaji, 1965). Additionally, the sentence 'Takashi-ga watashi-ni



riNgo-o kureta (Takashi gave apples to me).' corresponds to 'Watashi-ga Takashi-ni riNgo-o moratta (I received apples from Takashi).'

I conclude that passivisation does not work in GRVs in Japanese because the speaker's empathy is strongly fixed. This is another peculiarity of these verbs and the learner should be taught this.

## 2.2.6 Use of non-honorific GRVs

### 2.2.6.1 Use and context in which each verb occurs

The typical explanation (Kuno, 1973) of when the plain forms of non-honorific GRVs are used in conventional grammar is:

(42)

<i>yaru</i>	someone gives something to a person <b>equal</b> or <b>inferior</b> to him
<i>ageru</i>	someone gives something to a person <b>superior</b> to him
<i>kureru</i>	someone <b>equal</b> or <b>inferior</b> to the speaker gives something to him
<i>morau</i>	someone receives something from a person <b>equal</b> to or <b>inferior</b> to him

As far as *kureru* and *morau* are concerned, these definitions are commonly understood. The above definitions of *yaru* and *ageru*, on the other hand, do not now seem to be widely accepted. Let us look at other explanations for these two words.

Mizutani and Mizutani (1987) clearly distinguish between *yaru* and *ageru*.

(43)

<i>yaru</i>	when giving something to someone of <b>lower</b> status
<i>ageru</i>	when giving something to someone of <b>equal</b> status

Therefore, *yaru* was traditionally used when giving something to children, animals and plants.

The explanations from several grammar dictionaries will be shown now. The explanations in the *Nihongo Kyooiku Jiten* (Ogawa, 1982) are as follows:

(44)

<i>yaru</i>	someone gives something to a person <b>inferior</b> to him/her, including animals. when the speaker refers to someone in his/her own family. more frequently used by men than women
<i>ageru</i>	someone gives something to a person <b>equal</b> to him/her

*Nihongo Bunpoo Nyuumon* (Yoshitake, 1989) states the same thing as the above. In addition, both *Nihongo Kihon Dooshi Yoohoo Jiten* (Koizumi, 1989) and *Gaikokujin-no Tameno Kihonyoorei Jiten* (Bunkashoo, 1975) also explain that *ageru* is a polite form of *yaru*.

Let us look at the explanations in three Japanese teaching materials. Some are used as textbooks and some are used as supplementary materials at the Australian National University. First, in 'An Introduction to Modern Japanese' (Mizutani & Mizutani, 1977), the verb *ageru* is used to describe the action of giving something to an equal, while 'Situational Functional Japanese' (Tsukuba Language Group, 1992) states that "when giving food/drink to animals (or water to plants), and also when giving to one's younger brothers/sisters, *yaru* is considered more appropriate than *ageru*, especially by older speakers." Lastly, according to the explanation in 'A Course in Modern Japanese' (Japanese Section in University of Nagoya, 1983), "*yaru* is used when the receiver is **inferior** to the giver and *ageru* is used when the receiver is **equal** to the giver." (my emphasis)

It is true that historically/originally, *ageru* is derived from an honorific which was a humble form (see Section 2.3) of *yaru*. However, a majority of the publications agree

that *yaru* is now used for referring to someone inferior to the speaker and *ageru* is for someone equal to the speaker. The recent use of *yaru* and *ageru* is such that people have widely used *ageru* when giving something to someone equal to him/her and have used *yaru* when giving something to someone inferior. I shall define the use of these two words in this thesis as follows:

(45)

- |              |   |
|--------------|---|
| <i>yaru</i>  | -someone gives something to a person <b>inferior</b> to him/her,<br>including animals and plants<br>- when the speaker refers to someone in their own family<br>(-it is also used by men even when referring to an equal) |
| <i>ageru</i> | someone gives something to a person <b>equal</b> to him/her   |

Some examples are shown below.

(46) Kodomo - ni riNgo - o **yaru.**

child - DAT apples - ACC give

(I give apples to a child.)

(47) Doobutsu - ni esa - o **yaru.**

animals - DAT food - ACC give

(I give food to animals.)

(48) Hana - ni mizu - o **yaru.**

flowers - DAT water - ACC give

(I give water to flowers.)

(49) Tomodachi - ni riNgo - o **ageru.**

my friend - DAT apples - ACC give

(I give apples to my friend.)

An interesting recent phenomenon (Yamamoto, 1991) is the replacement of the word *yaru* with *ageru* in some situations in modern Japanese. However, this is largely

irrelevant to my discussion because it is not how it is currently being taught to second language learners both in Japan and Australia.

To sum up this section, the usage of the plain form of non-honorific GRVs in modern Japanese is:

(50)

*yaru*

-someone gives something to an **inferior**, including animals and plants

- when the speaker refers to someone in their own family  
(-it is also used by men even when referring to an equal)

*ageru*

someone gives something to a person **equal** to him/her

*kureru*

someone equal or inferior to the speaker gives something to him/her

*morau*

someone receives something from a person equal or inferior to him/her

## 2.3 Honorific GRVs

### 2.3.1 What are honorifics in Japanese?

In this section, the honorific GRVs, i.e. *sashiageru*, *kudasaru* and *itadaku*, are discussed. First, the relationship between the Japanese language and Japanese society is briefly mentioned. The Japanese language strongly reflects the hierarchical relationships within the society. Honorifics are well developed in both grammar and vocabulary.

The honorifics have been well developed under the above circumstance and have established an unique domain in Japanese linguistics. The function of honorifics is to encode respect to the person referred to or talked to. By doing this, the honorifics contrast with neutral terms which encode no such respect (Backhouse, 1993).



As Japanese people believe that hierarchical relationships are important, these relationships control the choice of the words between a giver and a receiver when using GRVs.

### 2.3.2 Types of honorifics

Although honorifics occur in many word classes, I am concerned with honorific verbs, which can be divided into 'subject-honorifics' and 'object-honorifics' (Backhouse, 1993).

#### 2.3.2.1 Subject-honorifics

The first type is called 'subject-honorifics' or 'honorific form' (*sonkeigo*). They exalt actions performed by the respected person. I will use the term 'subject-honorifics' in the rest of the thesis. The basic patterns for such verbs for the subject-honorifics are 'o + verb stem + *ni naru*' or 'verb stem + *reru/rareru*', so that, *oyarininaru* or *yarareru*, *oageninaru* or *agerareru* and *omoraininaru* or *morawareru* are the subject-honorifics for *yaru*, *ageru* and *morau*, respectively. Some verbs, on the other hand, have a special word instead. For instance, *kudasaru* is the subject-honorific for *kureru*.

- (51) SeNsei - ga inu - ni esa - o oyarininat - ta.  
teacher - NOM dog - DAT food - ACC give - HON - PAST  
(A teacher gave food to a dog.)

- (52) SeNsei - ga tomodachi - ni riNgo - o oageninat - ta.  
teacher - NOM my friend - DAT apples - ACC give - HON - PAST  
(A teacher gave apples to my friend.)

- (53) SeNsei - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o kudasat - ta.  
teacher - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC give - HON - PAST  
(A teacher gave apples to me.)

- (54) SeNsei - ga tomodachi - ni riNgo - o omoraininat - ta.  
 teacher - NOM my friend - DAT apples - ACC receive - HON - PAST  
 (A teacher received apples from my friend.)

### 2.3.2.2 Object-honorifics

The second type is called 'object honorifics' or 'humble form' (*kenjoogo*). "They refer to actions performed by other persons that impinge on the respected person"

(Backhouse, 1993). I will use the term 'object-honorifics' in this thesis. They do not have a basic form like 'subject-honorifics' have. *Sashiageru* and *itadaku* are 'object-honorifics' for *yarū/agerū* and *morau*, respectively.

- (55) Watashi - ga seNsei - ni riNgo - o sashiage - ta.  
 I - NOM teacher - DAT apples - ACC give - HON - PAST  
 (I gave apples to a teacher.)

- (56) Watashi - ga seNsei - ni riNgo - o itadai - ta.  
 I - NOM teacher - DAT apples - ACC give - HON - PAST  
 (I received apples from a teacher.)

The verb *kureru* has only one honorific i.e. *kudasaru*. This is because the speaker is in the indirect object position. Therefore, there is no object-honorific.

To sum up, these Japanese giving and receiving verbs; *yarū*, *agerū*, *kureru* and *morau* have special honorifics, which although not particularly unusual in Japanese, reflect the importance of the relative ranks of the giver and receiver. This complication is completely lacking in English.

### 2.3.3 The use of the honorific for the GRVs

Regarding the case marking system speaker's empathy, omission and passivisation, honorific GRVs have the same linguistic constraints as non-honorific GRVs. The use of the honorific for the GRVs are as follows:

(57)

- sashiageru* someone gives something to a person superior to him/her  
*kudasaru* a superior gives something to the speaker  
*itadaku* someone receives something from a person superior to him/her

## 2.4 Benefactives

### 2.4.1 What are benefactives?

In the previous sections, the discussion has centred around GRVs. They are related to the event of giving and receiving a concrete object. In this section, I will discuss the auxiliary form of the GRVs, which is related to the benefaction and indebtedness resulting from an action.

Backhouse (1993) calls them 'benefactives' (this means the same as 'benefactive auxiliaries'). His definition of benefactives is that "they are used to express the fact that a (volitional) action is performed for the benefit of someone, and their presence may be seen as a reflection of the Japanese cultural concern with relations of benefaction and indebtedness".

They are also called "verbs of favour-doing and favour-receiving" because they express the psychological attitudes assumed by the speaker toward a particular person, who may be either in the second or third person (Shibatani, 1976).

As Backhouse's definition reflects the Japanese cultural background, I shall call them 'benefactives' and employ his definition in this thesis.

The pattern of these auxiliaries is 'verb stem + *te*-form + GRV'. There are seven auxiliaries: *~te yaru*, *~te ageru*, *~te sashiageru*, *~te kureru*, *~te kudasaru*, *~te morau*, and *~te itadaku*. These auxiliaries, syntactically and semantically, behave the same way as the GRVs. Therefore, they have the same constraints as the GRVs. Mizutani and

Mizutani (1987) simply explain “the words used for giving and receiving concrete objects are added to the ‘te’ form of the verb to refer to doing and receiving favours. The use of these words based on personal relations is the same as when they are used alone.” Table (58) below shows the benefactives.

(58) The benefactives in Japanese

GRVs		Benefactives	
Non-honorifics (Plain form)	Honorifics	Non-honorifics (Plain form)	Honorifics
yaru ageru	sashiageru	~ te yaru ~ te ageru	~ te sashiageru
kureru	kudasaru	~ te kureru	~ te kudasaru
morau	itadaku	~ te morau	~ te itadaku

Before showing the explanations of these auxiliaries, it should be understood that this is a very difficult verb form to translate into English. Usually, the phrase “as a favour to someone” is used by Backhouse (1993), Mizutani and Mizutani (1987) used “for someone” and Maynard (1990) used “for someone’s benefit.” Backhouse (1993) also says that “more particularly, the common benefactive use of *morau* often presents initial difficulties. It is important to see that this is natural extension of its basic lexical use; just as one may receive a gift, so one may receive a favour from someone, and indeed English uses the verb *get* in a not dissimilar way (cf. *get a guitar for Christmas/get someone to do something for me*).”

#### 2.4.2 Explanations

The following explanations are based on Backhouse (1993) and Maynard (1990).



(59)

*~te yaru*

- someone does something as a favour to a person inferior to him/her (including animals and plants), or as a favour to members in his/her family
- someone does a favour for a person inferior to him/her
- describes both self-performed (and other-performed) other-influencing action

*~te ageru*

- someone does something as a favour to a person equal to him/her
- someone does a favour for a person equal to him/her
- describes both self-performed (and other-performed) other-influencing action

*~te kureru*

- someone equal or inferior to the speaker does something as a favour to the speaker
- someone receives a favour from an equal or inferior
- describes other-performed, self-benefiting action

*~te morau*

- someone receives a favour from a person equal or inferior to him/her
- someone has something done for him/her
- someone gets a person equal or inferior to him/her to do something
- describes self-initiated, self-benefiting action

*~te sashiageru*

- someone does something as a favour to a person superior to him/her
- describes both self-performed (and other-performed) other-influencing action

- ~te kudasaru* - someone superior to the speaker does something as a favour to the speaker  
 - describes other-performed, self-benefiting action

- ~te itadaku* - someone receives a favour from a person superior to him/her  
 - someone has something done for him/her  
 - someone gets a person superior to him/her to do something  
 - describes self-initiated, self-benefiting action

### 2.4.3 Examples

Let us examine the following sentences. It should be noted that Yumiko and Takashi belong to the out-group.

- (60) Watashi - ga kodomo - ni riNgo - o mui - te yat - ta.  
 I - NOM child - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (I peeled apples as a favour to a child.)

- (61) \*Watashi - ga kodomo - ni riNgo - o mui - ta.  
 I - NOM child - DAT apples - ACC peel - PAST  
 (I peeled apples for a child.)

- (62) Watashi - ga tomodachi - ni riNgo - o mui - te age - ta.  
 I - NOM friend - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (I peeled apples as a favour for a friend.)

- (63) \*Watashi - ga tomodachi - ni riNgo - o mui - ta.  
 I - NOM friend - DAT apples - ACC peel - PAST  
 (I peeled apples for a friend.)

(64) Yumiko - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o mui - te age - ta.  
 Yumiko - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (Yumiko peeled apples as a favour to Takashi.)

(65) ?Yumiko - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o mui - ta.  
 Yumiko - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC peel - PAST  
 (Yumiko peeled apples for Takashi.)

(66) Watashi - ga seNsei - ni riNgo - o mui - te sashiage - ta.  
 I - NOM teacher - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (I peeled apples as a favour for a teacher.)

(67) \*Watashi - ga seNsei - ni riNgo - o mui - ta.  
 I - NOM teacher - DAT apples - ACC peel - PAST  
 (I peeled apples for a teacher.)

(68) Tomodachi - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o mui - te kure - ta.  
 friend - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (A friend peeled apples as a favour to me.)

(69) \*Tomodachi - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o mui - ta.  
 friend - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC peel - PAST  
 (A friend peeled apples for me.)

(70) SeNsei - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o mui - te kudasat - ta.  
 teacher - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (A teacher peeled apples as a favour to me.)

(71) \*SeNsei - ga watashi - ni riNgo - o mui - ta.  
 teacher - NOM me - DAT apples - ACC peel - PAST  
 (A teacher peeled apples for me.)



- (72) Watashi - ga tomodachi - ni riNgo - o mui - te morat - ta.  
 I - NOM friend - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (I got my friend to peel apples for me./My friend peeled apples for me as a favour.)

- (73) Yumiko - ga Takashi - ni riNgo - o mui - te morat - ta.  
 Yumiko - NOM Takashi - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (Yumiko got Takashi to peel apples for her./Takashi peeled apples for Yumiko as a favour.)

- (74) Watashi - ga seNsei - ni riNgo - o mui - te itadai - ta.  
 I - NOM teacher - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (I got the teacher to peel apples for me./The teacher peeled apples for me as a favour.)

An objective description of these actions is not suitable and a description which reflects the speaker's subjectivity is much more appropriate in both spoken and written Japanese (Masuoka 1991, Morita 1988).

Sentences (61), (63) and (65) are ungrammatical because those events are not described from the speaker's or the in-group's position. Sentences (60), (62) and (64), on the other hand, are grammatical because the events are described through the speaker's point of view. Sentence (67) is not acceptable because the honorific of the benefactive must be used for the respected person, in this case, the teacher. The same reason applies to sentences from (68) to (71). Sentences (72), (73) and (74) illustrate how the auxiliary '*te morau*' works.

#### 2.4.4 Modality

According to Lyons (1977), modality is "used by the speaker in order to express, parenthetically, his opinion or attitude towards the proposition that the sentence expresses or the situation that the proposition describes." A simpler explanation is that



modality shows the speaker's opinion or attitude towards an event (Palmer, 1986). Therefore, benefactives are one of the modal expressions in Japanese.

Let us examine the following sentences.

(75) Watashi - ga Yumiko - ni riNgo - o mui - te age - ta.  
 I - NOM Yumiko - DAT apples - ACC peel - BEN - PAST  
 (I peeled apples as a favour to Yumiko.)

[Watashi - ga Yumiko - ni riNgo - o mui - ta] + [te ageru].

PROPOSITION

MODALITY

DESCRIPTION OF AN EVENT

BENEFACTIVES

Sentence (75) consists of the proposition and modality. The part, *watashi-ga Yumiko-ni riNgo-o mui-ta* (I peeled apples for Yumiko.) is the proposition of the sentence and the final part, *te ageru* is a modal expression. The proposition describes an event objectively while the modality describes the speaker's attitude towards the event. In short, modality expresses the speaker's subjectivity. Japanese people tend to avoid assertive expressions. According to Masuoka (1991), Japanese is rich in modal expressions and each modal expression has a domain. For instance, passive voice is used when expressing damage whereas the benefactive is used when expressing benefaction or indebtedness in Japanese language. Therefore, it is important that the speaker's subjectivity should be shown in every event by using these modal expressions i.e. benefactives in this case. Japanese, especially spoken Japanese, with modal expressions sounds much more natural than statements which describe only facts.

The problem associated with the benefactives in terms of second language acquisition is omission (Backhouse 1993, Horiguchi 1984, Mizutani 1985, Morita 1988). Backhouse (1993) pointed out that "at a general level, Japanese tends to express these notions much more widely than English, so that there is tendency for learners to omit them." In fact, English does not have the benefactives at all which is why they are very difficult to

translate into English and why native English speakers find it difficult to remember to use them.

#### 2.4.5 A peculiarity at discourse level

There is another problem associated with the benefactives at discourse level. Due to the benefactive reflecting the speaker's subjectivity, the benefactive, *~te ageru*, should be given special treatment when it is used in an interrogative sentence. The sentence below is an example of the situation in which special care is required.

(76) Takashi - saN, shashiN - o tot - **te age** - mashooka.

Takashi photos - ACC take - BEN - shall I

(Takashi, shall I take photos as a favour to you?)

Sentence (76) is grammatically correct, however, the verb, *tot - te age - mashooka*, sounds too condescending in this situation and it could be considered offensive.

Following Maynard's explanation (1990), this wording suggests that Takashi is helpless and that he is also incapable of taking photos. In this case, the benefactives must not be used and it should be *Takashi - saN, shashiN - o tori-mashooka* (Shall I take your photos?).

Interestingly, Tateoka (1989) measures the degree of tolerance of native speakers of Japanese to various types of errors made by learners of Japanese. She reports that the misuse or absence of benefactives is not acceptable and it is irritating to native Japanese speakers. Thus, this kind of problem at discourse level should receive more attention.

### 2.5 The relevance of second language acquisition

In this section the GRVs and the benefactive auxiliaries are examined from the point of view of second language acquisition. This section shows the kinds of difficulty encountered when comparing the verbs "to give" and "to receive" in English with the

GRVs and the benefactives in Japanese. It will explain, in general, why the use of the GRVs and the benefactives are difficult to acquire, and some indication of where or how learners make errors.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: Table 3.1) present the *hierarchy of difficulty* which is a simplified version of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin's (1965). They compare English to the major European languages taught in American schools. The examples below are based on English speakers who learn Spanish. In the table below 'splits' are considered to be the most difficult situation for the learner to master. A split occurs when one word in L1 has to be translated into two or more words in L2. The elements that are similar to learners' L1 are simple or easy for them to learn whereas the elements that are different from their L1 is difficult.

(77) Hierarchy of Difficulty

Types of Difficulty	L1	L2	Example
	English	Spanish	
1. Split	X	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="text-align: center;">----</div> <div style="text-align: center;">X</div> <div style="text-align: center;">/</div> <div style="text-align: center;">Y</div> </div>	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> for  por para </div>
2. New	Ø	----- X	marking grammatical gender
3. Absent	X	----- Ø	<i>Do</i> as a tense carrier
4. Coalesced	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="text-align: center;">X</div> <div style="text-align: center;">-----</div> <div style="text-align: center;">Y</div> <div style="text-align: center;">/</div> <div style="text-align: center;">X</div> </div>	X	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> his/her is realized as a single form  <i>su</i> </div>
5. Correspondence	X	----- X	-ing = -ndo as a complement with verbs of perception

The above table explicitly shows the level of difficulty for native English speakers learning Spanish. However, this can also apply to GRVs and benefactives. The verb



'to give' in English splits five ways in Japanese, *yaru*, *ageru*, *sashiageru*, *kureru* and *kudasaru*, and likewise 'to receive' splits two ways, *morau* and *itadaku*. It leads to some confusion in the L2. The case markers, the speaker's empathy, honorifics and benefactives are all 'new' to the L2 learner. This may cause avoidance, i.e. learners do not use them until they have been absorbed thoroughly into the learners' mind. Moreover, omission of the pronoun is classified as 'absent', to which is attributed the difficulty of identifying the missing pronoun. Finally, the lack of passivisation may cause confusion to learners as there is no equivalent for the passive structure of their L1. The lack of passivisation is classified as 'coalesced'.

## 2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed some peculiarities of GRVs and benefactives from two points of view: linguistics and second language acquisition. Some syntactic and semantic features in GRVs and benefactives in Japanese have been discussed. The case marking system and the speaker's empathy have been analysed. The important point here is the point of view from which the event is observed. Passivisation is not applicable to the giving and receiving verbs because passive voice implies that the speaker's point of view changes from the subject to the object. The semantic character of these verbs strongly governs the syntactic structure of the sentences.

Japanese is a language which tends to emphasise the position of 'me' (the speaker). Therefore, the speaker always has to reflect his/her subjectivity with regard to an event. Mizutani and Mizutani (1987) summarise and suggest that "expressions of giving and receiving like 'ageru', 'kureru', etc., are essentially speaker-oriented. When choosing one of these, try to keep in mind that the form of expression is decided from the viewpoint of the speaker."

The speaker's empathy, honorifics and the benefactives are totally new concepts to the learners from English speaking backgrounds.



I will analyse what problems students have using these GRVs and benefactives correctly in the next chapter.

## Performance analysis

### 3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to determine the difficulties for the learner of Japanese as AYL. Some aspects of the learner's use of GRVs and benefactives, in actual performance, in both spoken and written work, are analysed. There are two main parts. First, performance, errors and avoidance are defined, and then, the results from the learner's performance are analysed. Finally, some examples of learners' production are described.

#### 3.1.1 Competence and performance

A distinction between competence and performance from the point of view of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) should be made. Ellis (1994) builds up his definition of competence and performance on the basis of Chomsky's distinction (1965). Hyman in the 1970s, and Canale and Swain's in the 1980s which extended to cover communicative aspects of language. According to Ellis (1994), competence "refers to a language user's underlying knowledge of language, which is drawn on in actual performance. Theories of language vary in how they define competence."

Performance, on the other hand, "refers to the actual use of language in either comprehension or production."

From the teaching point of view, Alfonso and Nimi (1981) also make a distinction between competence and performance. They state that competence and performance are entirely different even though these two have an intimate connection. Alfonso and Nimi define competence as having control of linguistic forms and comprehension of the ideas and of underlying social situations. Performance is, on the other hand, the externalisation of competence.

## Chapter 3

### Performance analysis

#### 3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to determine the difficulties for the learner of Japanese at ANU. Some aspects of the learner's use of GRVs and benefactives, in actual performance, in both spoken and written work, are analysed. There are two main parts. First, performance, errors and avoidance are defined, and then, the results from the learner's performance are analysed. Finally, some examples of learners' production are described.

##### 3.1.1 Competence and performance

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Both definitions clearly show the difference between competence and performance. As a result, it is difficult to measure the learners' competence. However, the learners' performance as his/her production (spoken and written performance) can be described and analysed.

### 3.1.2 Mistakes, errors and avoidance

It is also important to make a distinction between 'mistake' and 'error'. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) employ Corder's distinction between a mistake and an error. A mistake is mainly made by native speakers and is caused by exhaustion, agitation, etc. However, it is possible for them to correct their own mistakes. An error is, on the other hand, usually found in L2. The error tends to occur systematically, and the learner cannot correct it by himself/herself because it reflects his/her current stage of L2 development or underlying competence. Thus, what the language learner makes is a error.

Next, 'avoidance' should be defined. Avoidance occurs "when specific target-language features are under-represented in the learner's production in comparison to native-speaker production. Learners are likely to avoid structures they find difficult as a result of differences between their native language and the target language" (Ellis, 1985 & 1994), in this case, the benefactive auxiliaries.

## 3.2 Analysis

### 3.2.1 Subjects

The learner's performance (production) in both spoken and written work will be examined.

The subjects in this thesis were students who had learnt Japanese at the Australian National University (ANU) from 1991 to 1995. They studied Spoken Japanese 3, or Written Japanese C or D.

The Japan Centre at ANU offers four semesters of Spoken Japanese i.e. Spoken Japanese 1 and 2 in first year, 3 and 4 in second year, and four semesters of Written Japanese i.e. Written A and B in first year, C and D in second year. Each Spoken Japanese unit consists of five hours per week, totalling approximately 65 hours. Written Japanese C and D consists of four and three hours per week, respectively, totalling approximately 52 and 39 hours, respectively. The students who studied Spoken 3 either had successfully completed Spoken 1 and 2, or achieved a satisfactory result on a level placement test and, therefore, given approval to study at this level of Japanese. The students who studied Written C or D had also successfully completed Written A and B.

The reason why this level of students was chosen is because the subjects had already learnt all forms of GRVs. GRVs were taught in Spoken 1 and 2 at ANU using '*An Introduction to Modern Japanese*' as the textbook. The auxiliaries were taught in the first half of Spoken 3, therefore, it is possible to determine the problems. Additionally, GRVs are treated as an important grammatical point, as is normally the case at this level (Sakamoto, 1994).

These subjects had been exposed to various Japanese language experiences. Some students had some experience of learning Japanese at secondary school or other institutions. Some other students had been to Japan as exchange students.

The linguistic background of the subjects is also diverse. The majority of the students are native English speakers and the rest are Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, Thai, Indonesian speakers, etc. Approximately seventy percent of the students are native English speakers, approximately ten percent are native Chinese speakers, and speakers of other Asian languages comprised around five percent. Students from other European language background are a few percent.



Since it is my aim to determine the problems actually encountered by learners of Japanese in courses at ANU, I decided not to exclude any subject on the basis of their language experience and language background from this analysis. Having mixed language experience in the classroom is unavoidable in Australia. The normal classroom situation consists of learners from different language backgrounds. Practically, there is no reason to choose only native English speakers as subjects in the analysis of difficulties faced by learners of Japanese when making some suggestions to the teachers who will face these composite classes. It is highly unlikely, in modern Australia, at tertiary level, that a teacher will have a homogeneous class.

The subjects at ANU are being taught Japanese in English. They are translating from English to Japanese and *vice versa*. Therefore, areas where Japanese and English are very different and in particular, areas where Japanese is more complex, will cause most problems and confusion. There may well be additional interference from other languages in those students who are not native English speakers. However, it is beyond the scope of this chapter to consider this final complication.

### 3.2.2 Procedure and data

I will consider two sets of data: speech from a oral test in Spoken 3 and written performance from assignments in Written Japanese C and D.

There are two sources for speech. The first topic, given in April 1991, is *BooifureNdo/gaarufureNdo-no taNjoobi-ni shiteagetaikoto* (what I want to do for my boyfriend/girlfriend on his/her birthday). There are one hundred and eight subjects. The second topic, given in September 1992, is *SeNsei-no rusubaNdeNwa-ni deNgon-nokosukoto* (leaving a message for the teacher on an answering machine). There are seventy-one subjects. Both speeches were recorded by the Japan Centre staff. In their spoken performance, the teacher informed the students of the topic before the test, therefore, the students were allowed to prepare their speech. However, they had to present their speech without consulting their notes.

The data from their written performance were collected from the assignments submitted between February 1992 and August 1995. The main sources of the topics of the assignments were, 'the travel plan' and 'about myself in ten years time'.

All expressions using or avoiding GRVs and benefactives whether appropriate or not were collected and categorised as either correct use, errors or avoidance.

### 3.2.3 Results

#### 3.2.3.1 What are the problems?

Tables (1) and (2) show the results from the spoken and written performance, respectively. The number of correct uses, the number of errors, the number of avoidances and the total number of uses of GRVs and benefactives used are shown. The total includes the number of correct uses, the number of errors and the number of sentences where the benefactives should have been used. Each ratio of the total number is also shown. The Chi-square test is used in order to examine whether the results are significant or not. The null hypothesis for them is that there is no difference between the number of errors and the number of avoidances. The alternative hypothesis is that there is a difference between them. The level of data is frequency. The relationship between categories is independent. The level of probability used is 0.05.

The results from Chi-square test reveal that the number of errors and the number of avoidances in each spoken performance and written performance are significant at 0.05 (See Appendix 3.1 and 3.2).

(1) Numbers of correct uses, errors and avoidances in spoken performance

	Numbers	Ratio
Correct uses	378	75.6 %
Errors	41	8.2 %
Avoidances	81	16.2 %
Total	500	100.0 %

(2) Numbers of correct uses, errors and avoidances in the written assignments/composition

	Numbers	Ratio
Correct uses	25	61.0 %
Errors	3	7.3 %
Avoidances	13	31.7 %
Total	41	100.0 %

Table (1) shows that about seventy-five percent of the total number of uses are correct and the number of avoidances is about twice as many as the number of errors. Moreover, Table (2) shows that about sixty percent of the total number of uses are correct and the number of avoidances is almost four times as many as the number of errors. Both results clearly reveal that avoidance is a more significant problem than errors in terms of GRVs and the benefactives. This result supports the conclusion made by Horiguchi (1984) who analysed errors concerning giving and receiving verbs.

The details regarding errors and avoidances are discussed in Section 3.5 and 3.6.

### 3.2.3.2 Which verbs and auxiliaries are problematic in spoken performance?

I will now examine whether there is any particular verb or auxiliary which is difficult to learn.

Table (3) lists the number of correct uses, the number of errors and the number of avoidances associated with each GRV and benefactive in spoken performance. When a student uses '*kureru*' instead of '*morau*', the error was counted in the '*morau*' category. For instance, '*BooifureNdo-ni takai resutoraN-ni tsureteit-te**kure**mashita.*' It must be '*tureteit-te**morai**mashita*'. In this case, the error is counted in the category of '*~te morau*' which is the correct form. In theory this could be a case of particle error (*ni* in place of *ga*); however it is felt as being more likely due to an error of verb usage and is so interpreted in this thesis. In addition, hereafter, the polite form of each GRV is included in the plain form of the GRVs in order to contrast it with the honorific.

Because the sample size is too small, it is inappropriate to use an inferential statistical test for Table (3).

	No. of correct	No. of errors	No. of avoidances
		(% correct)	(% avoidances)
~te yamemasu	0	0 (all correct)	1 (0.37)
~te ageru	17	4 (0.22)	67 (0.38)
~te agemasu	0	0	0
~te rakugasu	2	1 (0.50)	0 (all correct)
~te sashinagemasu	0	0	0
~te kureru	15	4 (0.27)	11 (0.63)
~te kuremasu	0	0	0
~te kudasaru	2	1 (0.50)	0 (all correct)
~te kudasemasu	0	0	0
~te morau	11	2 (0.18)	2 (0.18)
~te moraimasu	0	0	0
~te hadaku	7	16 (0.23)	0 (all correct)
~te hadakemasu	0	0	0
Total	37	41	81



- (3) The number of correct uses, errors and avoidances associated with each GRV and benefactive in spoken performance

	No. of correct uses	No. of errors (ratio per correct uses)	No. of avoidances (ratio per correct uses)
yaru (yarimasu)	1	0 (all correct)	-
ageru (agemasu)	83	6 (0.07)	-
sashiageru (sashiagemasu)	0	0	-
kureru (kuremasu)	6	3 (0.50)	-
kudasaru (kudasaimasu)	0	0	-
morau (moraimasu)	8	0 (all correct)	-
itadaku (itadakimasu)	0	3 (1.00)	-
~te yaru (~te yarimasu)	2	0 (all correct)	1 (0.50)
~te ageru (~te agemasu)	177	4 (0.02)	67 (0.38)
~te sashiageru (~te sashiagemasu)	2	1 (0.50)	0 (all correct)
~te kureru (~te kuremasu)	15	4 (0.27)	11 (0.70)
~te kudasaru (~te kudasaimasu)	2	2 (1.00)	0 (all correct)
~te morau (~te moraimasu)	11	2 (0.18)	2 (0.18)
~te itadaku (~te itadakimasu)	71	16 (0.23)	0 (all correct)
Total	378	41	81

Let us analyse trends associated with the learners' spoken performance.

According to Table (3), the verbs *sashiageru* and *kudasaru* were not used by the students. Of the remaining GRVs, the one with the highest error rate is *itadaku*, followed by *kureru*. Finally, most students were correct in their usage of *ageru* and *morau*. The Hierarchy of Difficulty (Chapter 2) explains why *ageru* and *morau* are easy for the students and *kureru* is problematic. *Ageru* and *morau* have a one-to-one correspondence to 'to give' and 'to receive' in English, which is the easiest level according to Larsen-Freeman and Long's Hierarchy of Difficulty (1991). Even with benefactives, the students can still cope with both *~te ageru* and *~te morau*. *Kureru*, on the other hand, falls into the type of difficulty referred to as number 1, which is listed as the most difficult level. Furthermore, the complicated structure, *~te kureru* and *~te kudasaru*, presents some problems. As far as the one with the highest error rate, *itadaku*, is concerned, it is difficult to analyse the basis for these difficulties because the other honorifics, *sashiageru* and *itadaku*, were not used at all, therefore, it is impossible to compare them. In addition, the number of uses of *itadaku* is very small.

These GRVs and benefactives are grouped into four categories; plain and polite forms of GRVs, honorifics of GRVs, plain and polite forms of benefactives and honorifics of benefactives. Table (4) shows the number of correct uses, the number of errors and the number of errors per correct use in each group. The students generally cope with benefactives well. However, when honorifics and benefactives have to be used together, then, errors occur because two concepts must be manipulated. As I mentioned above, it is impossible to deduce a trend concerning the honorifics of GRVs.

	Plain and polite forms			Honorifics		
	No. of correct	No. of errors	Ratio (per correct)	No. of correct	No. of errors	Ratio (per correct)
Benefactives	205	8	0.04	~ 75	0	all correct
GRVs						

(4) Errors per correct use in spoken performance

	Plain and polite forms			Honorifics		
	No. of correct uses	No. of errors	Ratio (per correct use)	No. of correct uses	No. of errors	Ratio (per correct use)
GRVs	98	12	0.12	0	3	all incorrect
Benefactives	205	10	0.05	75	19	0.25

Table (5) shows the number of correct uses, the number of avoidances and the number of avoidances per correct use in each group. Many avoidances were committed in the plain form or polite form rather than the honorific. One of the reasons is *~te itadakemaseNka*, which is a variation of *~te itadaku* when requesting something, is mainly used. Both *~te sashiageru* and *~te kudasaru* are infrequently used. This *~te itadakemaseNka* is a set phrase, which all students have learnt. They are not trying to compose the sentence with two complicating concepts: benefactive and honorifics. When they do try, many errors are made (Table (4)) and many avoidances occurred. Regarding avoidances, *kureru* is the most problematic (Table (3)). Mizutani (1985) emphasises that the learners are not able to use *kureru* confidently. These data show the same phenomenon.

(5) Avoidance per correct use in spoken performance

	Plain and polite forms			Honorifics		
	No. of correct uses	No. of avoidances	Ratio (per correct use)	No. of correct uses	No. of avoidances	Ratio (per correct use)
Benefactives	205	81	0.40	75	0	all correct



What is interesting regarding the situation of benefactives of honorifics is either they are used correctly or they are avoided. This means that either they know how to use them or they leave them alone.

### 3.2.3.3 Which verbs and auxiliaries are problematic in written performance?

Table (6) lists the number of correct uses, the number of errors and the number of avoidances associated with each GRV and benefactive in written performance. The number of uses of GRVs is too small to be able to compare them and to identify a trend. I shall discuss only the benefactives.

- (6) The number of correct uses, errors and avoidances associated with each GRV and the benefactives in written performance

	No. of correct uses	No. of errors	No. of avoidances
yaru	0	0	-
ageru	0	0	-
sashiageru	0	0	-
kureru	0	0	-
kudasaru	0	0	-
morau	1	0	-
itadaku	0	0	-
~te yaru	0	0	0
~te ageru	1	2	7
~te sashiageru	0	0	0
~te kureru	14	1	5
~te kudasaru	0	0	0
~te morau	5	0	1
~te itadaku	4	0	0
Total	25	3	13



It is inappropriate to use an inferential statistical test because the sample size is too small.

Let us analyse trends associated with written performance.

Table (7) shows the number of correct uses, the number of errors and the number of errors per correct use. Regarding plain and polite forms, two errors out of three are associated with *~te ageru*, which is a problem at discourse level. In the case of the four correct uses of honorifics, it was used by four individuals and all four verbs were a variation of *~te itadaku*. When used, most students used it correctly except a small percentage of discourse level errors (Section 3.5.6). It is hard to identify a tendency for the use of the honorific because of the small number of occurrences involved and the fact that only one benefactive, *~te itadaku*, is used.

(7) Errors per correct use in written performance

	Plain and polite forms			Honorifics		
	No. of correct uses	No. of errors	Ratio (per correct use)	No. of correct uses	No. of errors	Ratio (per correct use)
Benefactives	20	3	0.15	4	0	all correct

Table (8) shows the number of correct uses, the number of avoidances and the number of avoidances per correct use. The pattern that emerges shows that the honorifics of benefactives are infrequently used. When the students did use them, they used them correctly. However, there is a high level of avoidance of plain and polite forms of benefactives, which was also detected in the pattern of spoken performance. We have an overlying pattern; if the students used it, they got it right, however, a high level of avoidance of plain form of benefactives occurred.

(8) Avoidances per correct use in written performance

	Plain and polite forms			Honorifics		
	No. of correct uses	No. of avoidances	Ratio (per correct use)	No. of correct uses	No. of avoidances	Ratio (per correct use)
Benefactives	20	13	0.65	4	0	all correct

The differences in avoidances in plain and polite forms of benefactives between spoken and written language is; with regard to spoken language, there are more avoidances of *kureru*, whereas in written language, there are more avoidances of *ageru*. This is not a simply reflection of the frequency of use of the two words. One of the obvious or initial reasons for this is topic control. One of the topics of spoken performance was *BooifureNdo/gaarufureNdo-no taNjoobi-ni shiteagetaikoto* (what I want to do for my boyfriend/girlfriend on his/her birthday). Therefore, the students must have concentrated on using the verbs, *ageru* or *~te ageru*.

In concluding this section, in spoken performance, the students are likely to make many errors in honorifics of benefactives and they tend to commit many avoidances of plain form of benefactives. With regard to written performance, the students tend to make many errors and commit avoidances of plain and polite form of benefactives.

### 3.3 Errors

#### 3.3.1 The classification of the errors

The classification of the errors is based on a modified version of Horiguchi (1984).

##### [1] Phonological errors

- [2] Morphosyntactic errors
  - ① Errors of verbal inflection
  - ② Errors of particles
  - ③ Confusion between GRVs
  - ④ Errors of honorifics
- [3] Lexical errors
  - ① Misusing GRVs instead of other verbs
  - ② Selection of incorrect verbs instead of GRVs
- [4] Errors at discourse level
  - ① Unnecessary use of benefactives
  - ② Others

(9) The numbers of each type of error

Types of errors	Spoken	Written
Phonological errors	0	0
Morphosyntactic errors	24	0
① Errors of verbal inflection	(5)	(0)
② Errors of particles	(9)	(0)
③ Confusion between GRVs	(7)	(0)
④ Errors of honorifics	(3)	(0)
Lexical errors	14	1
① Misusing GRVs instead of other verbs	(14)	(1)
② Selection of incorrect verbs instead of GRVs	(0)	(0)
Errors at discourse level	5	2
① Unnecessary use of benefactives	(2)	(2)
② Others	(3)	(0)
Total errors	41	3

Table (9) shows the numbers of each type of error in both spoken and written performance. In spoken performance, morphosyntactic errors are more common. The problem is mainly related to morphology and syntax, followed by lexical errors and

errors at discourse level. In written performance, on the other hand, there are so few errors, that it is impossible to note any trends.

### 3.3.2 Description of errors

The way of describing errors is shown here. The error is shown on the left hand side of the arrow, and the correct form is shown on the right hand side of the arrow. 'S' signifies a spoken error and 'W' a written one. Looking at the example below, it should be 'BooifureNdo - ni okurimono - o agemasu.' *ni* is used instead of *o* in error.

Error ---> Correct

*ni* ---> *o*

BooifureNdo - ni okurimono - *ni* age - masu.

boyfriend - DAT present - DAT give - NON-PAST(POLITE)

(I will give a present to my boyfriend.)

### 3.3.3 Phonological errors

Phonological errors were not found in the data from either spoken or written work.

### 3.3.4 Morphosyntactic errors

This section is for morphosyntactic errors. It should be noted that '[ ]' means a phrase which the speaker omitted but could be determined from the context.

#### 3.3.4.1 Errors of verbal inflection

S(10) agerou ---> ageyoo

\*Ii purezeNto - o age - *rou* - to omoimasu.

good present - ACC give - VOLITIONAL I think that (POLITE)

(Lit.; I think that I will give a good present.)

(i.e.; I will give a nice present.)



S(11) agetai ----> ageru

\*Ichinichijuu yasashiku shi - te age - **tai** - tsumoridesu.  
for a whole day be kind - BEN - want to will (POLITE)  
(I will be kind [to him] for a whole day.)

S(12) itadakemashitaka ----> itadakemasuka

\*Messeji, itadakemashitaka.  
message could I have  
(Could I have a message?)

The above examples of errors are caused by verbal conjugation and inflection. It is always difficult for students to learn Japanese verbal conjugations (Horiguchi, 1984). Horiguchi suggested that it would not be a big problem if the students learnt verbal conjugations when they were beginners.

No error of this type was found in the written work.

#### 3.3.4.2 Errors of particles

S(13) ga ---> o (-ACC)

\*Iroirona CD - **ga** age - taiNdesu.  
various CD give - want to (POLITE)  
(I want to give various CDs.)

S(14) ga ---> o (ACC)

\*PuriNto - **ga** itadake - maseNka.  
handout receive- HONORIFIC - INTERROGATIVE (POLITE)  
(Could I receive/get a handout?)

S(15) ni ---> o (ACC)

\*BooifureNdo - ni okurimono - **ni** age - masu.  
boyfriend - DAT present - DAT give - NON-PAST (POLITE)  
(I will give a present to my boyfriend.)

S(16) **wa** ---> **o** (-ACC)

\*OheNji - wa itadake - naideshooka.

an answer receive - HONORIFIC - INTERROGATIVE (POLITE)

(Could I have an answer?)

S(17) **ni** ---> **ga** (NOM)

\*KyoneN, watashino taNjoobi - wa booifureNdo - ni

last year my birthday - TOP boyfriend

takai resuturaN - ni tsureteit - te kure - mashita.

expensive restaurant - DAT take - BEN - PAST (POLITE)

(My boyfriend took me to an expensive restaurant for my birthday last year.)

S(18) **ni**--->**ga** (NOM)

\*Watashi - ni [kare - ni] ii tokei - o kat - te age

I - DAT [him - DAT] good watch - ACC buy - BEN

- mashita.

- PAST (POLITE)

(I bought a good watch [for him].)

There were, in fact, nine examples of errors involving particles. It is a well-known fact that the acquisition of particles is one of the difficult areas for learners of Japanese. Kawaguchi (1994) worked on major errors associated with the use of particles by the students who were studying Spoken Japanese 3 and 4 at ANU. She confirmed that the particles *wa*, *ga*, *o*, *ni* and *no* were frequently used and the most incorrectly used by the learners. In addition, as I have discussed in Chapter 2, omission of an argument in GRVs and benefactives makes them complex. Resulting from this, it is difficult for the learner to identify the missing word on the basis of the verb and case markers. Thus, this result suggests that the students still have some difficulties with the basic usage of the case markers for GRVs and benefactives.

### 3.3.4.3 Confusion between GRVs

#### S(19) **ageru** ---> **kureru**

\*Watashino gaarufureNdo - mo watashi - ni hana - o  
my girlfriend - too me - DAT flower - ACC

**age - masu.**

give - NON-PAST (POLITE)

(My girlfriend will give flowers to me, too.)

#### S(20) **kureru** ---> **ageru**

\*[watashi - ga] BooifureNdo - ni maitoshi kutsushita - o  
[I - NOM] boyfriend - DAT every year socks - ACC

**kureru - kara,**.....

give - because

(As I give some socks to him every year,.....)

#### S(21) **morau** ---> **kureru**

\*Choodo okiru toki nanode, [rajio - de] 7 ji 30 puN - ni  
just get up time as [radio from] 7.30 am - at

soo [otaNjoobi omedetoo] it - te **morau** - to ii

so [happy birthday] say - BEN - QUOTATION good

- desune.

- COPULA

(Lit.; As getting up, it would be good if [a disk jockey on the radio] says so [happy birthday].)

(i.e.; It would be nice if someone on the radio says 'happy birthday' at 7.30 am when we get up.)

S(22) **kureru** ---> **morau**

\*Oishii sushi - o tabe - sase - te kureru resutoraN - ni  
delicious sushi - ACC eat - CAUSATIVE - BEN restaurant - DAT

tsureteitte - morat - te, purezeNto - o morat - te, Koobe - ni  
take - BEN - and present - ACC receive - and Kobe - to

tsureteit - te **kure** - **mashita**.

take - BEN - PAST (POLITE)

(He took me to a restaurant which provides delicious *sushi* and I received a present  
and then, he took me to Kobe.)

There were seven examples of errors associated with the confusion between GRVs.  
The confusion between *ageru* and *kureru* caused three errors and the confusion between  
*kureru* and *morau*, four errors. It is hard to tell which confusion is more significant.  
Considering that only seven errors are found, it is not a serious problem for students at  
ANU to understand the direction of GRVs.

These errors can be attributed to the fact that the learner has not acquired either the  
concept of the Japanese GRVs, or the syntax of the GRVs.

#### 3.3.4.4 Errors in honorifics

S(23) ~te **kuremaseNka** (plain form) ---> ~te **kudasaimaseNka** (honorific)

\*SeNsei, moshi yokattara suiseNjoo - o  
teacher if you would not mind a letter of recommendation - ACC

kai - te **kure** - maseNka.

write - BEN - INTERROGATIVE (POLITE)

(Teacher, please would you write a letter of recommendation for me if you would  
not mind?.)



S(24) **okakininaru** (honorific) ---> **kaku** (plain form)

\*SuisenJoo - o **okakininat**

a letter of recommendation - ACC write - HONORIFIC

- te itadake - maseNka.

- BEN -HONORIFIC - INTERROGATIVE (POLITE)

(Could you write a letter of recommendation for me?)

There were, in fact, three errors in the benefactives of honorifics. In sentence (23), the learner obviously forgot to whom they were speaking. In sentence (24), the problem is the form of honorifics because two polite forms were used. Only one form is required.

### 3.3.5 Lexical errors

#### 3.3.5.1 Misusing GRVs instead of other verbs

There are some cases where GRVs should be not used instead of the verbs *suru* (to do), *hoshii* (to want) and *hakobu* (to carry).

<do>

S(25) ~o **age** - taidesu (want to give) ---> ~ni **shi** - taidesu (want to do)

---> ~ni **shite age** - taidesu

\*Tokubetsuno hi - o **age** - taidesu.

special day - ACC give - want to

(I want to give [him] a special day.)

S(26) **agemasu** (give/will give) ---> **shimasu** (have/will have)

\*Ookii sapuraizu paatii - o **agemasu**.

big surprise party - ACC give

(I will give a big surprise party.)

W(27) **aNnai- o** kuremasu (give us a guide) ---> **aNnaishite kuremasu**

(will guide)

\*TabuN, sobo - ga sokoni **aNnai - o** kuremasu.

probably grandmother - NOM there guide - ACC give

(My grandmother will probably guide us there.)

<carry>

S(28) **agetaNdesuyo** (gave) ---> **hakoNde agetaNdesuyo** (carried + BEN)

\*Watashi - wa kareno taNjoobi - ni beddo - ni

I - NOM his birthday - on bed - in

asagohaN - o **age - taNdesuyo.**

breakfast - ACC give - PAST (POLITE)

(I gave [him] breakfast on his birthday.)

<want>

S(29) **moraitagaruNdesu** ---> **hoshigaruNdesu**

\*Kare - wa oNgaku ga daisuki - dakara, kasetto - o itsumo

he - NOM music love - because cassette - ACC always

**morai - tagaruNdesu.**

receive/get - want to

(Because he loves music, he always wants to receive/get cassettes.)

The highest number, fourteen, of errors were found in this section. Horiguchi (1984) explains that these sorts of errors are mainly caused by the range of meanings of 'to give' and 'to receive' in English not corresponding to the range of meanings of GRVs in Japanese. Regarding to 'to give a party' in English, for instance, the verb *suru* is used instead of GRVs in Japanese. The use of *ageru* instead of *suru* (to do) occupied half of this kind of error. Looking at sentence (25) and (26), it clearly reveals the interference from English. In English, 'I want to give him a special day' and 'I will give a big surprise party' are perfectly all right. Horiguchi (1984) points out that this kind of error

is highly likely to happen to students whose native language is Korean, Thai or Chinese as well as English. It is obviously interference from L1 and the semantic problem that contributes to this difficulty.

### 3.3.5.2 Selection of incorrect verbs instead of GRVs

There were no errors associated with the selection of incorrect verbs instead of GRVs in both spoken and written performances.

### 3.3.6 Errors at discourse level

#### 3.3.6.1 Unnecessary use of the benefactives

S(30) **moratteitadakenaideshooka** --->  $\emptyset$  + **itadakenaideshooka**

\*Shukudai - ga arimashita - kara, shukudai - o  
homework - have-PAST - because homework - ACC

**morat - te itadake - naideshooka.**

receive - BEN - INTERROGATIVE

(Lit.; Because there is homework, could I have homework?)

(i.e.; I know that there is homework, could you give it to me please?)

S(31) **itte agete** ---> **itte** +  $\emptyset$

\*Watashitachi - wa takai resutoraN - ni it - **te agete**,.....

we - NOM expensive restaurant - DAT go - BEN

(We go/will go to an expensive restaurant, and...)

W(32) **tsureteitteagemasu** ---> **otsureshimasu**

\*KyaNbera kuukoo - ni **tsureteit - te agemasu.**

Canberra airport - DAT take - BEN (POLITE)

(I will take you to Canberra airport.)

W(33) **miseteagetaideu** ---> **omiseshitaidesu**

\*Oosutorariano inaka - o **mise - te age - taidesu.**

Australian country side - ACC show - BEN - want to(POLITE)

(I want to show you the Australian country side/the country side in Australia.)

Sentence (30) was in response to the topic 'leaving a message for the teacher on an answering machine'. The student is asking the teacher to give him/her a handout for homework because s/he missed the last class. So that, it should be simply said '*...shukudai - o itadakenaideshooka*' (Could I have a handout for homework, please?)

Sentences (31) and (32) are found in written performance. They are typical errors which are pointed out in most textbooks and this has been also discussed in the section called 'a peculiarity at discourse level' in Chapter 2. '*Tsuretteitteagemasu*' and '*miseteagemasu*' sound too condescending and these wordings suggest that the listener or the reader is incapable. These errors happen when a listener or a reader is a person receiving the benefit. It does not happen when the receiver of the benefit is not the listener (Horiguchi, 1984). Most native Japanese people feel an aversion to these expressions and, therefore, it is not acceptable in Japanese society. It is obviously a pragmatic feature. This sort of error should be corrected and the learner must have some practice for this.

3.3.6.2 Others

S(34) **tanoshikusasetai** ---> **tanoshikushiteagetai**

\*Dekirudake sonohi - o **tanoshiku - sase - tai**

as possible the day - ACC enjoy - CAUSATIVE - want to

- to omoimasu.

think (POLITE)

(Lit.; I think that I want to make the day enjoyable.)

(i.e.; I want to make the day enjoyable.)



S(35) **ureshikunarudeshoo ---> yorokoNdekurerudeshoo**  
 \*Dakara imotoo - wa ureshiku - narudeshoo.

so that my younger sister - NOM happy - will become

(Lit.; So that my younger sister will become to be happy.)

(i.e.; So that my younger sister will be glad.)

S(36) **uresiidaroo ---> yorokoNdekurerudaroo**

\*Kanojo - wa ureshii - daroo - to omoimasu.

she - NOM happy probably think (POLITE)

(I think that she is probably happy.)

Sentence (34) shows a confusion between causative and benefactive. When thinking about the English translation, the interference from English can be seen. Regarding sentences (35) and (36), they reveal that Japanese is a speaker-oriented language. The Japanese language expresses an event through the speaker's point of view. Therefore, it is subjective. The event is rarely expressed objectively. In English, it is possible to comment on a fact i.e. 'she will be happy.' whereas in Japanese, the fact must be commented on from the view point of the speaker and at the time the benefactives should be used. It would not sound natural to Japanese if expressed in any other manner.

### 3.4 Avoidance

Benefactive auxiliaries are often avoided by the learners.

S(37) **shimasu ---> shi - te agemasu**

\*GaarufureNdo no taNjoobi - ni iroirona koto - o shimasu.

girlfriend's birthday - on various things -ACC do (POLITE)

(I will do various things on my girlfriend's birthday.)

S(38) **tsureteitta** ---> **tsureteit - te kureta**

\*Watashino taNjoobi - ni gaarufureNdo - ga resutoraN - ni  
my birthday - on girlfriend - NOM restaurant - DAT

**tsureteitta.**

take - PAST

(My girlfriend took me to a restaurant on my birthday.)

S(39) **kakuremasu** ---> **kakure - te moraimasu**

\*[Karen] tomodachi - o yoNde, ie - no achirakochirani  
[his] friend - ACC invite house - in here and there

**kakuremasu.**

hide (POLITE)

(I will invite some friends and ask them hide here and there in the house.)

S(40) **utaimashita** ---> **utat - te agemashita**

\*Kanojo - ni ookii koe - de happii baasudee - o  
her - for loud voice - with happy birthday - ACC

**utai - mashita.**

sing - PAST (POLITE)

(I sang 'happy birthday' loudly for her.)

S(41) **iimashita** ---> **it - te kuremashita**

\*Tomodachi - wa ichibaN tokubetsuno taNjoobi - dato  
friend - NOM best special birthday - that

**iimashita.**

say - PAST (POLITE)

(My friend said to me that it was a most special birthday.)

S(42) **kita ---> ki - te kureta**

\*Oozei tomodachi - ga **kita.**

many friends - NOM come - PAST

(Many friends came.)

S(43) **noserutameni ---> nose - te ageru tameni**

\*Chichino yotto - ni **noseru - tameni,** yottohaabaa - ni ikimasu.

father's yacht - on get on - in order to yacht harbour - to go (POLITE)

(I will go to the yacht-harbour in order to get on my father's yacht.)

S(44) **kautsumoridesu ---> kat - te ageru tsumoridesu**

\*Nekutai - o **kau - tsumoridesu.**

ties - ACC buy - will (POLITE)

(I will buy ties.)

S(45) **kaitaidesu ---> kat - te age taidesu**

\*Ryoori - no hoN - o **kai - taidesu.**

cooking book - ACC buy - want to (POLITE)

(I want to buy a cooking book.)

S(46) **kaoo ---> kat - te age yoo**

\*Ootobai - no guraNpuri - no kippu - o **kaoo - to omotteimasu.**

motorbike grand prix ticket - ACC buy - think (POLITE)

(I will buy a ticket to the motorbike grand prix.)

S(47) **yorokobu to omoimasu---> yorokoN - de kureru to omoimasu**

\*BooifureNdo - wa tabuN **yorokobu - to omoimasu.**

boyfriend - NOM probably happy - think (POLITE)

(I think that my boyfriend will be probably happy.)

S(48) tsukurutsumoridesu ---> tsukut - te ageru tsumoridesu

\*YuuhaN - niwa furaNsu ryoori - o tsukuru - tsumoridesu.

dinner - for French food - ACC cook - will (POLITE)

(I will cook French food for dinner.)

S(49) shiNsetsudakara ---> shiNsetsuni-shi - te kureru kara

\*BooifureNdo - wa mainichi watashini shiNsetsuda - kara,....

boyfriend - NOM every day me kind - because.....

(Lit.; Because my boyfriend is kind to me every day,...)

W(50) oshiemasu ---> oshie - te agemasu

\*Watashi - wa tokidoki sono tomodachi - ni eigo - o

I - NOM sometimes the friend - DAT English - ACC

oshiemasu.

teach (POLITE)

(I sometimes teach English to a friend.)

W(51) mukaemasu ---> mukae - te kuremasu

\*Kazoku - ga kuukoo - de watashitachi - o mukaemasu.

my family - NOM airport - at us - ACC go to meet (POLITE)

(My family will go to meet you at the airport.)

W(52) tasukeru - noka ---> tasuke - te ageru - noka

\*Ani - ni dooshite aNna iyana hito - o

older brother - DAT why such nasty person - ACC

tasukeru - noka to kii - tara.....

help - QUOTATION ask - when

(When I asked my older brother why you helped such a nasty person,...)



W(53) tasukeyoo - towa ---> tasuke -te ageyoo -towa

\*Shiranai hito - o tasukeyoo - towa omoimasin.

strange person -ACC help-VOLITIONAL - think -NEGATIVE (POLITE)

(I do not think that I will/would help a strange person.)

There are ninety-four avoidances involving benefactives in both spoken and written performances. They are divided into two different kinds of avoidances in terms of position. One is avoidance which occurred at the end of the predicate. The other is avoidance which occurred in the middle of the predicate. The former type of avoidance is shown in sentences (37) to (42). The number of this type of avoidance is twenty-seven. The latter type of avoidance, on the other hand, is sixty-seven, which is illustrated between sentences (43) and (53).

In terms of written performance, there are six avoidances (out of thirteen) which occurred in the middle of the predicate.

To sum up, the predicate misses an element. Put in another way, 'simplification' in the morpheme level occurs, which suggests that simplification happens more in spoken than written. There are two places where simplification occurs. The simplification (avoidance) which occurs in the middle of the predicate is more frequent than the one which occurs at the end of the predicate.

### 3.5 Conclusion

An analysis of learners' performance has revealed some important aspects in terms of errors and avoidances.

Firstly, avoidance is a more significant problem than errors. Especially, the plain and polite form of the benefactives create some problems in both spoken and written performance. Furthermore, there are two kinds of avoidance occurring in the predicate at the morpheme level. One occurs at the end of the predicate and the other occurs in

the middle of the predicate. I hypothesise that avoidance occurring at the end of the predicate is associated with problems in the cognitive level. The learner has not acquired the new concept of the benefactive, therefore, s/he has not understood the importance of its use. In the meantime, the avoidance occurring in the middle of the predicate is associated with a syntactic problem. The learner has already acquired the concept, nevertheless, is finding difficulties with assembling the specific structure, (V1+BENFACTIVE+V2).

Secondly, the errors are also associated with benefactives rather than the GRVs themselves. The honorific of benefactives is more problematic in spoken performance and the plain and polite form of benefactives is a more serious problem in written performance. Major areas of errors are morphosyntactic errors, lexical errors and discourse level errors.

When the learners are taught GRVs and the benefactives, it has not been emphasised enough how important the benefactive is, nor has enough emphasis been placed on all the situations where they should be used. Errors and avoidances which have been pointed out here should be considered in the preparation of the exercises.

I would like to now look at possible reasons suggested for these types of problems, especially avoidance, in students' performance.

## Chapter 4

### Analysis of avoidance

#### 4.1 Background information

##### 4.1.1 Introduction

The previous chapter revealed problems which learners face when learning GRVs and benefactives. A conspicuous result in spoken performance has appeared; the avoidance of benefactives is a more significant problem than errors of use. Moreover, avoidance in the middle of the predicate is a more serious problem than avoidance at the end.

The purposes of this chapter are to show the syntactic developmental stages in terms of GRVs and the benefactives in speech production and to make clear the relationship between the developmental stages and avoidance. It should be noted that the stages were developed from the study of cross-sectional data. I will analyse this avoidance in more depth in order to determine problems associated with teaching GRVs and benefactives. First, I will identify the possible underlying causes of the avoidance. Second, I will discuss the 'teachability hypothesis' suggested by Pienemann (1984). According to Pienemann, premature instruction should not be given before learners can develop the ability to comprehend the use of GRVs and benefactives. I will then determine the developmental stages related to GRVs and benefactives in plain and polite forms. Finally, the relevance of the developmental stages and avoidance will be examined.

The use of the honorific is not covered in this chapter because I shall focus on benefactives and avoidance. The concept of honorifics is another factor and there are insufficient examples of avoidance of honorifics in this study for conclusions to be drawn.

#### 4.1.2 Simplification

There are at least two major causes for the learner avoiding benefactives: simplification (redundancy reduction) and communication strategies.

##### 4.1.2.1 Definition

According to Ellis (1985), "simplification refers to the way in which learners seek to ease the burden of learning or using a second language by controlling the number of hypotheses they try to form at any one stage of development, or by omitting grammatical and/or propositional elements in production." In addition, Blum-Kulka and Levernston (1978) state that "avoidance is one of the phenomena of the simplification." So, I shall follow these definitions in the following analysis.

##### 4.1.2.2 Some types of simplification

Meisel (1980:14) listed several types of 'simplification' in areas other than phonology:

- (1)
  - I Simplification of surface structure, e.g. fewer elements occurring. This would include deletion of morphological information.
  - II Derivational simplification, calculating the number of rules and possibly also taking into account the kind of rules applied. This covers cases of rule generalization, i.e. the scope of application may be wider, fewer elements may be mentioned in the structural description of the rule.
  - III Simplification of underlying structure, e.g. fewer constituents being introduced by Phrase Structure Grammar.
  - IV Psychological simplification computed on the basis of processing time, memory span, number of errors, etc.
  - V Perceptual simplification, facilitating the process of decoding an utterance, e.g. by non-violation of perceptual strategies.

Those avoidances, for instance, which involve *kaimasu* (to buy) instead of *kat-te age-masu* (to buy something as a favour to someone), or *kau-tsumoridesu* (intend to buy)



instead of *kat-te ageru-tsumoridesu* (intend to buy something as a favour to someone) result from the simplification of surface structures and psychological simplification. At the surface structural level, the number of elements which the learner uses is obviously fewer than the number which is used by native Japanese speakers. As far as psychological simplification is concerned, the learner may not be able to handle too much information at once or in a limited time frame, i.e. *kau* (to buy) + *te ageru* (the benefactive) + *tsumoridesu* (intend to).

#### 4.1.2.3 Why does the learner simplify?

Some errors are attributed to redundancy reduction, also referred to as simplification (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). They give an example of the omission of a plural marker in English, e.g. \*I studied English for two year\_.

Now, let us look at an example from a learner's speech production.

- (2) Kanojo - ni ookii koe - de happii baasudee - o      **utai - mashita.**  
her      for big      voice with happy birthday - ACC sing - PAST  
(POLITE)

I sang 'happy birthday' loudly for her.

The above sentence is not natural. The predicate should be *utat-te age-mashita*, instead of *utaimashita* because the speaker sang a song as a favour for her. The speaker's attitude towards the event is not expressed in (2). However, no information about the fact is omitted; it is fully comprehensible without '*te age(mashita)*'. The learner uses the communication strategies (see next section) in order to maintain conversation. As a result of this, redundancy reduction occurred by omitting the benefactive.

Thus, the redundancy reduction is part of the economy principle which tends to be used by learners and usually does not conflict with the grammatical structure being used.

#### 4.1.3 Communication strategies

When explaining avoidances, some learners' strategies should be mentioned. Learners use general cognitive strategies referred to as learner strategies. Tarone (1980) distinguishes three sets of learner strategies: learning strategies, production strategies and communication strategies. Communication strategies are strategies which emphasise use rather than learning, although they can contribute indirectly to learning by providing more input. They occur when learners attempt to say things in the target language but lack the knowledge of the correct structures (Ellis, 1985). In short, language learners place priority on the flow of conversation, thus sacrificing accuracy.

Considering the benefactives, learners sometimes omit their usage. It is easier to describe an event objectively than to describe it subjectively by using the benefactives. Therefore, the learner avoided the use of benefactives in the above example.

#### 4.1.4 Teachability hypothesis

I have discussed avoidance in the light of simplification and communication strategies to identify the underlying mechanism. Now, the problem arises as to how the language teacher can prevent the avoidance committed by second language learners. Pienemann (1987) suggests a 'teachability hypothesis'. He, firstly, explains the developmental stages (sequences) in learners' syntactic acquisition. Accordingly, he suggests that an appropriate instruction corresponding to learners' syntactic developmental stage should be given. If learners are given inappropriate or difficult instructions before they are capable of absorbing them, it follows that not only will they produce avoidance behaviour, neither are they likely to learn. In addition, he clearly explains that "the avoidance was the result of being forced to produce this structure at an early stage."

Pienemann uses the words 'teachable' and 'learnable' as well as 'teachability'. When learners are ready to learn a certain instruction, this means that it is 'learnable' and that this would be an appropriate time for the language teacher to give a 'teachable'



instruction. Therefore, it is important for the language teacher to determine learners' current processing stage and to give instructions comprehensible to this stage.

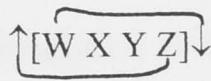
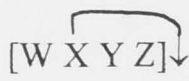
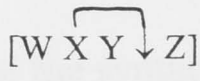

#### 4.1.5 Developmental stages (processing stages)

I agree with Ellis' interpretation of the sequence of developmental stages through which language learners must follow in an ordered progression, to bring them to the point of comprehension of specific syntactical features characteristic of that particular stage (Ellis, 1994). He adds the fact that the acquisition of L2 grammar occurring in stages is, in general, accepted in the SLA research community. I believe that the appropriate instruction in L2 grammar corresponding to the acquired stage of learners is crucial to their understanding of usages.

When determining the developmental stages, a reliable measurement is required. The different task demands yield different performance scores (Krashen, 1975). Also, some tasks favour accuracy, whereas other tasks favour complexity or fluency (Tarone, 1988). Additionally, accuracy and fluency are affected by both the types and the conditions of tasks comparing the accuracy, complexity and fluency of second language speech production. The complexity of the sentence structure is, on the other hand, not affected by the task variation. Thus, the complexity of syntactic structures is a reliable criterion in speech production for determining the developmental stages (Rahimopour, 1995).

There is strong evidence for developmental sequences in the L2 acquisition of German, i.e. word order rules are clearly developmental as investigated by Pienemann (Ellis, 1994). His information processing theory is based on syntactic complexity. I shall use Pienemann's information processing theory in my analysis. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) present the processing strategies underlying GSL (German as a Second Language) word order stages, which are based on Pienemann and Johnston's work, as shown in (3).

(3) The processing strategies underlying the GSL word order stages

Groups	GSL Word Order Stage (Word order rules)	Permissible permutations	Controlling Strategies
X	(SOV) canonical order	[W X Y Z]	[+COS, +SCS]
X+1	(ADV) <b>initialization/ finalization</b>		[+COS, +IFS, +SCS]
X+2	(SEP) <b>disruption and movement into salient position</b>		[-COS, +INF, +SCS]
X+3	(INV) <b>internal movement</b>		[-COS, -INF, +SCS]
X+4	(V-END) sub-categorization	 [A B C]	[-COS, -INF, -SCS]

(Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 273, Figure 7.3)

\* Bold word order stages are used in my analysis in Section 4.2.

\* The details about the strategies in the table are shown in Appendix 4.1.

The table shows that each successive stage involves a higher degree of difficulty of processing structures. In short, with regard to word order rules, initialisation (i.e. moving an element from the final position to the initial position), and finalisation (i.e. moving an element from initial position to the final position), are easiest. It is with internalisation, i.e. movement of an internal element to another internal position, that learners have difficulties.

The work on word order in GSL may be generalised and transferred to other developmental sequences and to other languages. Furthermore, Doi and Yoshioka (1987 & 1988) and Pienemann (1987) state that "instructed learners of English and Japanese have been found to develop various syntactic and morphological constructions in those languages in the sequences predictable by processing strategies hypothesized to govern them" (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). I believe that these processing



strategies can apply to other developmental sequences at the morpheme level and can also apply to other languages, e.g. Japanese.

Coming back to the original subject, the developmental stages for GRVs and benefactives should be determined on the basis of the syntactic complexity at the morpheme level because the avoidance associated with the benefactives occurs at the that level.

#### 4.2 Hypothesis of the developmental stages

There are four stages for the processing of the syntactic development of the benefactives in spoken language and the sequence involves a qualitative change in the difficulty of morphological structures between each stage. The hypothesis is that these stages are correlated to the number of avoidances. Table (4) shows the developmental stages. These stages are based on processing strategies underlying the GSL word order stages (of Pienemann and Johnston).

Before I state the developmental stages for Japanese GRVs and benefactives, I shall justify how I have treated the verbal inflections. I shall use 'agemasu' as one word because learners are firstly taught 'agemasu' as one word in most textbooks. Then, learners are taught some functional words such as '~tsumoridesu (intend to)', '~taidesu (want to)', '~kamoshiremasen (may)' and so on. Next, these functional words are combined with the actual verb 'agemasu' and the word, for instance, 'age-taidesu (want to give)' is formed. This is how learners are taught Japanese verbs in the actual teaching situation, therefore, I shall follow this procedure although these words, 'agemasu', 'agetaidesu' and so on, are morphologically complex.

In Stage X, a canonical order strategy is used, and learners need to understand the direction of the movement of an object. Additionally, they should be aware of the concept of in-group and out-group. In Stage X+1, the finalisation strategy is used. Learners need to learn the verbal inflection of GRVs. In Stage X+2, there is a lot more

information to be processed; the new concept, the benefactive, is introduced as well as the finalisation strategy. In the final stage, Stage X+3, the internal movement of the benefactives is required.

(4) The developmental stages

JSL* morpheme order stages (predicate)	Permissible permutations	Examples
X (GRVs) canonical order	[X]	agemasu
X+1 (GRVs+V1) finalisation	[X Y]	age + taidesu
X+2 (V1 + te BEN**) finalisation and the new concept	[X BEN]	shi + te agemasu shi + te ageru
X+3 (V1 + te BEN + V2) internal movement	[X BEN Y]	shi + te age + taidesu
* Japanese as a Second Language		
** BEN = Benefactives		

### 4.3 Analysis

I will examine how avoidance changes depend on the developmental stages of learning GRVs and the benefactives.

### 4.3.1 Subjects

One hundred and eight subjects were chosen from those who were used in the performance analysis in Chapter 3. The students did an oral test on the topic '*What I want to do for my boyfriend/girlfriend on his/her birthday*' in Spoken 3 in 1991. Table (5) shows their language background and the total number of avoidances for each language group. The largest group is native English speakers with seventy-two subjects. The second largest language group is Chinese, with six. The remaining small groups are Vietnamese, Indonesian, Tagalong, Thai, and Dutch. In some cases subjects avoided a construction more than once, in some cases, subjects did not commit any avoidances.

(5) Students' language background and the number of avoidances

Language groups	The number of subjects	The number of avoidances
English	72 ( 66.7 %)	61 ( 74.4 %)
Chinese	6 ( 5.6 %)	1 ( 1.2 %)
Vietnamese	2 ( 1.9 %)	0 ( 0 %)
Indonesian	1 ( 0.9 %)	1 ( 1.2 %)
Tagalong*	1 ( 0.9 %)	1 ( 1.2 %)
Thai	1 ( 0.9 %)	0 ( 0 %)
Dutch	1 ( 0.9 %)	0 ( 0 %)
Unknown	24 ( 22.2 %)	18 ( 22.0 %)
Total	108 (100.0 %)	82 (100.0 %)

\* A language spoken in the Philippines

### 4.3.2 Procedures

#### 4.3.2.1 Excluding some subjects

Firstly, I have hypothesised that there is no difference between native English speakers and Chinese speakers. It is not necessary to exclude native Chinese speakers when examining the developmental stages, if there is no difference between the two. The other language groups have not been included because the number in each sample is insufficient. Subjects whose language background is unknown are also excluded. The data have been analysed by the chi-square test (Appendix 4.2). As a result, the difference between native English speakers and native Chinese speakers is not significant at 0.05 level of probability. Therefore, they can be combined. The combination of native English speakers and native Chinese speakers yielded seventy-eight subjects in the analysis.

#### 4.3.2.2 Grouping

From the result above, both native English speakers and native Chinese speakers were used in the analysis. The number of uses of the GRVs, GRV+V1, V1+BENEFACTIVE, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2 and the number of avoidances were counted. As six subjects did not use GRVs or these structures, they were excluded. Therefore, the total number of subjects was reduced to seventy-two. Also, these six subjects committed nine avoidances, which were then deducted from the total number of avoidances, to give fifty-three (see Table (8)).

The most difficult sentence structure is V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2 followed in order of complexity by V1+BENEFACTIVE, GRV+V1 and finally GRV by itself. The students have been divided into four groups according to their use of GRVs and benefactives. I shall call them Group X, Group X+1, Group X+2 and Group X+3. The subjects are grouped as follows:



(6)

Group X :The subjects who have used only GRVs.

Group X+1 :The subjects who have used the structure GRV+V1

Group X+2 :The subjects who have used the structure,  
V1+BENEFACTIVE.

Group X+3 :The subjects who have used the structure,  
V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2

(7) Grouping

Group	GRV	GRV+V1	V1+BEN	V1+BEN+V2
X	+	-	-	-
X+1	±	+	-	-
X+2	±	±	+	-
X+3	±	±	±	+

Note: + this structure is used by all subjects in the group.

± this structure is used by some subjects in the group.

- this structure is not used by any subjects in the group.

#### 4.3.3 Results

The number of uses of GRVs and benefactives, and the number of avoidances were counted in each group (Appendix 4.3). Table (8) shows these figures. There are some avoidances in each group.

(8) The number of uses of GRVs, benefactives and avoidances

Groups	No. of subjects	GRVs	GRV+V1	V1+BEN	V1+BEN+V2	Avoidances
X	4	5	0	0	0	9
X+1	10	6	15	0	0	13
X+2	11	2	1	22	0	8
X+3	47	5	38	38	103	23
Total	72	18	54	60	103	53

Table (9) shows the number of subjects, the number of correct uses of GRVs and benefactives and the number of correct uses per subject. It is obvious that the learners in the higher stages produced a higher number of correct uses of GRVs and benefactives.

(9) The number of correct uses per subject

Groups	No. of subjects	No. of correct uses of GRVs and BEN	Correct uses per subject
X	4	5	1.25
X+1	10	21	2.10
X+2	11	25	2.27
X+3	47	184	3.91
Total	72	235	3.26

Table (10) shows the number of subjects, the number of avoidances and the number of avoidances per subject. It reveals that learners in the higher stages committed less avoidances.

(10) The number of avoidances per subject

Groups	No. of subjects	No. of avoidances	Avoidances per subject
X	4	9	2.25
X+1	10	13	1.30
X+2	11	8	0.73
X+3	47	23	0.49
Total	72	53	0.74

The number and the percentage of subjects in each group who committed avoidances is shown in Table (11). Higher stages correlated with fewer avoidances. Three-quarters of learners in Group X committed avoidances, whereas less than a quarter of learners in Group X+3 committed avoidances.

(11) The number of subjects who committed avoidances and the percentage

Groups	No. of subjects	No. of subjects committed avoidances	Percentage of subjects who committed avoidances
X	4	3	75.0 %
X+1	10	7	70.0 %
X+2	11	5	45.5 %
X+3	47	11	23.4 %
Total	72	26	36.1 %

Table (12) shows the number of correct uses of GRVs and benefactives, the number of avoidances and the number of avoidances per correct use. Again, higher stages correlated with fewer avoidances per correct use.

(12) The number of avoidances per correct use

Groups	No. of subjects	No. of correct uses of GRVs and BEN	No. of avoidances	Avoidances per correct use
X	4	5	9	1.80
X+1	10	21	13	0.62
X+2	11	25	8	0.32
X+3	47	184	23	0.13
Total	72	235	53	0.23

Further details about the number of avoidances have also been analysed. I have pointed out the two kinds of avoidance in Chapter 3. Table (13) indicates the numbers of the two kinds of avoidances and avoidances per subject. The overall number of avoidances of V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2 is higher than the number of avoidances of V1+BENEFACTIVE. Regarding the number of avoidances per subject, the higher the stage, the fewer the numbers of avoidances of both V1+BENEFACTIVE and V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2. Comparing the two kinds of avoidances, the number of avoidances of V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2 is higher than the other except in Groups X and X+2. The avoidance of V1+BENEFACTIVE is more frequent in lower stages, while the avoidance of V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2 is more frequent in higher stages. The subjects in Group X are unable to use the more complicated structures. Therefore, the avoidance tends to happen in the simpler sentence structures. The students in Group X+3, on the other hand, tend to use the more complicated sentence structures and therefore, the avoidance is more likely to occur in the complicated sentence structures.



(13) The types of avoidances and the number of avoidances per subject

Groups	No. of subjects	No. of avoidances		Avoidances per subject	
		V1+BEN	V1+BEN +V2	V1+BEN	V1+BEN +V2
X	4	5	4	1.25	1.00
X+1	10	6	7	0.60	0.70
X+2	11	4	4	0.36	0.36
X+3	47	7	16	0.15	0.34
Total	72	22	31	0.31	0.43

Table (14) reveals similar phenomena to the results which are shown in Table (13).

(14) The types of avoidances and the number of avoidances per correct use

Groups	No. of correct	No. of avoidances		Avoidances per correct use	
		V1+BEN	V1+BEN +V2	V1+BEN	V1+BEN +V2
	uses of GRVs and BEN				
X	5	5	4	1.00	0.80
X+1	21	6	7	0.29	0.33
X+2	25	4	4	0.16	0.16
X+3	184	7	16	0.04	0.09
Total	235	22	31	0.09	0.13

I have examined how the avoidance changes depend on the developmental stages of learning GRVs and the benefactives and it is clear that avoidance is strongly related to developmental stages. It is now necessary to consider the reasons for the avoidances in each group.

In Groups X and X+1, the simplification of surface structures and derivational simplification have appeared. The most probable reason for this is that the learners do not understand the concept of benefactives, nor even the syntactic structures. It is also possible that whilst the learner may understand the concept of benefactives, especially the learner in Group X+1, they may believe that the functional words (modal expressions) e.g. *~taidesu*, *~tsumoridesu*, *~kamoshiremasen* etc. are natural enough to express the speaker's subjectivity. So it may happen that they employ the redundancy reduction.

In Group X+2, learners understand the concept of the benefactives, so that they can use the structure V1+BENEFACTIVE. However, they are unable to always handle it comfortably. They are still unaware of where and when it is required to be used. They may also understand the structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2, however, psychological simplification may be occurring. The predicate in the structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2, has at least three morphemes of information. The predicate '*kat-te age(ru)-tai-to omoimasu*' (I think that I want to buy...) has four pieces of information i.e. *kat* (to buy) - *te ageru* (benefactive) - *tai* (want to) - *to omoimasu* (I think). It is difficult to handle so much information in a certain time frame so that in this case, the learner is highly likely to avoid using benefactives.

In Group X+3, learners have obviously learnt the concept of the benefactives and they can comfortably handle the structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE, in most places where it is required and most of the time. Although they must understand the structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2, they are not able to use this comfortably. One of the possible reasons for this is that there is too much information in the predicate. In short, psychological simplification occurs. These communication strategies may have been used because of the test conditions in which this speech occurred.

To sum up, avoidance is a problem in each stage. The reasons for the avoidance are different in each stage: the lack of the concept of benefactives, the shortage of the knowledge about the syntactic structure, the lack of practice to handle the structure and so on. However, it is important to stress why the benefactives must be used as well as

the structures. I believe that these causes for avoidance can be overcome by reinforcing these problematic points.

#### Concluding remarks

#### 4.4 Conclusion

The correlation between the developmental stages and the avoidances has been analysed. There are some avoidances occurring in each stage and particular problems in each stage have been defined. Although the causes are various, they can be overcome by emphasising the key learning points at the appropriate stage.

Pienemann (1987) strongly emphasises the relevance of teachability to syllabus design. For language teachers, it is important to understand the developmental stages and the *teachability*. There are four developmental stages in terms of GRVs and the benefactives in the syntactic features of the plain and polite forms. Comprehensible exercises should be given to the learners in each stage.

## Chapter 5

### Concluding remarks

Some peculiarities of GRVs and benefactives in Japanese, actual errors and avoidance in the students' performance and these errors and avoidance are committed have been analysed.

Some peculiarities are attributable to the fact that Japanese is a speaker-oriented language. An event involving giving and receiving an object or a favour has to be expressed from the speaker's point of view. As a result of this, some syntactic restrictions appear: the case markers and the role of the speaker (the subject or the object of the sentence) in each verb. It also leads to the fact that passivisation is not applicable. Furthermore, benefactives should be used frequently even though there is a restriction at discourse level. The concepts of speaker's empathy and benefactives are totally new for the learner, especially native English speakers.

As a consequence of learners' performance, especially spoken performance, it has become obvious that they have some difficulties acquiring the GRVs and benefactives: understanding the concept, the syntactic structure, the discourse rule, etc. The difficulties involving benefactives appear not only as errors but also as avoidance. Avoidance, especially, is more problematic than error. In addition, two kinds of avoidance have been observed in terms of the position of the avoidance: avoidance in the middle of the predicate (V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2) and avoidance at the end (V1+BENEFACTIVE). The former occurs more frequently than the latter.

Most commonly, errors occur in the use of the case markers and of *kureru* and *kudasaru*. The errors are attributable to four main factors. First, frequent omission of an argument makes it more difficult for the learner to decide which case mark to use. Second, the verb 'to give' in English splits into three verbs in Japanese, *yarū*, *ageru* and *kureru*, which can easily lead to confusion. Third, several different forms, such as plain



form and polite form, and in addition, honorifics, are used to reflect the hierarchical relationships between the giver and the receiver. Finally, consideration of the group membership has to be taken into account.

The avoidance results from the introduction of a new concept, i.e. benefactives. The learner who has not acquired this concept tends to avoid using the special forms.

Moreover, learners' errors and avoidance are not random. When analysing learners' avoidance in their performance, some systematic problems are found. The occurrence of the systematic avoidance depends on the syntactic developmental stage of the learners.

The causes of avoidance and the correlation between avoidance and the developmental stages have been analysed. Simplification and communication strategies are possible causes of the avoidance. The problems in each developmental stage have been determined. Learning both the concept of benefactives and the structures (V1+BENEFACTIVE) are needed for Group X. It is necessary to reinforce the concept and to learn another structure (V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2) in Group X+1. Regarding Group X+2, reinforcement of the concept and the structures are required in order to increase accuracy and to prevent the use of communication strategies. Finally, improvement in fluency of handling the complicated structure (V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2) in Group X+3 is required.

The facts outlined above result in the following main points which learners must master in order to correctly use GRVs and benefactives:

- the concept, why the benefactives have to be used and where or when they are required.
- the syntactic structures: V1+BENEFACTIVE and V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2

- a discourse rule (when the benefactive should not be used)

Learning these three things will help to increase the appropriate use of GRVs and benefactives and to reduce the avoidance if language teachers emphasised them at the correct developmental level.

Considering the problems which learners have faced with the GRVs and benefactives, there are two kinds of constraints: linguistic constraints and cognitive constraints.

Table (1) summarises these constraints.

(1) Some constraints on the learner

Constraints

<Linguistic context>

<Cognitive context>

- semantics

- new concepts

(L1 interference--lexicon)

(split)

(simplification)

(benefactives)

- syntax

- information processing

(case markers)

(morpheme order in

(role of the speaker & speaker's empathy)

the predicate)

(structure of the predicate)

- pragmatics

- psychology

(discourse rule)

(time frame)

(hierarchical relationship)

The linguistic constraints occur on three levels: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic levels.

At the semantic level, interference from L1 and simplification are the problems. The confusion between *ageru* and *kureru*, or *kureru* and *morau* etc. results from the interference from L1. Simplification is another problem, in which the learner avoids using the benefactives because no information about described event is omitted.

At the syntactic level, the case marking system, 'G-ga R-ni T-o *ageru*', 'G-ga R-ni T-o *kureru*', 'R-ga G-ni T-o *morau*', is quite confusing for learners because omission of an argument may occur and, the role of the speaker and the speaker's empathy are strongly involved. Moreover, two kinds of predicate structure of the benefactives (V1+BENEFACTIVE and V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2) have to be learnt.

At the pragmatic level, the plain forms for honorifics of GRVs, i.e. *sashiageru*, *kudasaru* and *itadaku*, reflect the hierarchical relationships and additionally, there is the polite form for them (Chapter 1). Furthermore, 'o+V+suru' instead of 'V+te *ageru*' is used in some special cases, therefore, the choice of these GRVs and benefactives is affected by the contextual factors.

There are three constraints in the cognitive context: a new concept, information processing and psychology.

The benefactives are a totally new concept for native English speakers and in fact, even if the learner understands the syntactic structure, they still commit some avoidances. Also, the fact that the verb 'to give' splits into *yaru*, *ageru* and *kureru* is new and this ranks at the top of the types of difficulty. As learners have to consider the social hierarchy as well, it is easy enough to predict that there will be problems.

For second language learners, it is harder to move an element (a word or a morpheme) to an internal position than to move it from an initial to a final position or from a final or an initial position. It may be related to memory span because there are three elements to be handled at once with regard to the internal movement, while there are only two elements in the movement from a salient position (an initial or final position) to another salient position. It is obvious that the latter is easier to recognise and recall.

Thus, this processing system explains why the avoidance in the middle of the predicate is more frequent than the other.

Finally, second language learners' psychology should be considered. It is stressful and hard to handle too many items at once. In this case, the new concepts, the syntactic structures, the discourse rule and so on. It is easy to forecast that learners will avoid a certain construction in their production.

To sum up, these constraints should be considered systematically. The *teachability* of GRVs and benefactives should be also kept in mind.

I would now like to make some suggestions as to how language teachers may be able to overcome these problems. Language teachers should first determine the problems which the language learners are facing. At the same time, they should distinguish the cause of the problem; whether it comes from linguistic constraints or cognitive constraints. Likewise, they should define the developmental stages of the learners' language acquisition. By doing this, problems at each developmental stage become obvious and an appropriate teaching method can be identified. Furthermore, they should remember that all GRVs and benefactives do not have the same level of difficulty; some are more difficult than others. Therefore, it is useful to identify the most difficult structures first. Then, it is desirable to intensively reinforce these particular verbs or benefactives which learners are unable to handle well.

This thesis has discussed problems encountered by non-Japanese speakers in learning GRVs and benefactives in the light of both linguistics and second language teaching through the learner's performance. Suggested exercises are presented in Appendix 5.1. I hope this work will help teachers of Japanese to teach GRVs and benefactives effectively and also to provide their students with practical exercises designed to reduce errors and avoidance.



## Appendices

### Appendix 3.1 One-way $X^2$ (Chi-square) on spoken performance

No. of errors	No. of avoidance	Total
41	81	122
(61)	(61)	

( ) Expected value

Degree of freedom :  $df = 1$

Total Chi-square :  $X^2 = 13.1$

Probability :  $p = 0.0003$

### Appendix 3.2. One-way $X^2$ (Chi-square) on written performance

No. of errors	No. of avoidance	Total
3	13	16
(8)	(8)	

( ) Expected value

Degree of freedom :  $df = 1$

Total Chi-square :  $X^2 = 6.2$

Probability :  $p = 0.0124$

## Appendix 4.1 The three strategies identified by Clahsen in 1981 & 1984

- (1) Canonical Order Strategy (COS) - surface strings reflect direct mapping of underlying meaning onto syntactic form, as in the postulated NVN strategy (Bever 1970), with movement into or out of the fixed meaning-bearing sequences blocked.
- (2) Initialization-Finalization Strategy (IFS) - movements of elements to internal positions in underlying sequences are blocked, so that [XYZ] can be rearranged to become either [ZXY] or [YZX], but not [YXZ] or [XZY].
- (3) Subordinate Clause Strategy (SCS) - permutations of elements in subordinate clauses are avoided."

(Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 272)

## Appendix 4.2 Total number of avoidances between native English speakers and native Chinese speakers

	English	Chinese	Total
No. of subjects	72	6	78
Observed value	61	1	62
(Expected value)	(57.2)	(4.8)	

Degree of freedom :  $df = 1$

Total chi-square :  $X^2 = 3.3$

Probability :  $p = 0.071$

# Appendix 4.3 Developmental stages

Students	CORRECT	USES			AVOIDANCE	
	GRVs	GRVs+V1	V1+BEN	V1+BEN+V2	V1+BEN	V1+BEN+V2
1	1	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	0	0	0	0	2
3	1	0	0	0	2	0
4	2	0	0	0	3	2
5	0	1	0	0	0	0
6	0	1	0	0	0	1
7	0	1	0	0	0	2
8	0	1	0	0	2	1
9	1	1	0	0	3	0
10	2	1	0	0	1	0
11	1	2	0	0	0	0
12	1	2	0	0	0	1
13	1	2	0	0	0	2
14	0	3	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	1	0	0	2
16	0	0	1	0	1	0
17	1	0	1	0	0	0
18	1	0	1	0	0	0
19	0	0	1	0	0	0
20	0	0	2	0	1	0
21	0	1	2	0	0	2
22	0	0	3	0	2	0
23	0	0	3	0	0	0
24	0	0	3	0	0	0
25	0	0	4	0	0	0
26	0	0	0	1	0	0
27	0	0	0	1	0	1
28	0	0	0	1	1	1
29	0	0	0	1	2	2
30	1	1	0	1	0	1
31	0	1	0	1	1	1
32	0	2	0	1	0	1
33	0	2	0	1	0	0
34	0	3	0	1	0	0
35	0	0	1	1	0	0
36	0	0	1	1	0	0
37	1	0	1	1	0	0
38	0	0	1	1	0	0
39	1	0	1	1	0	0
40	1	1	1	1	0	0
41	0	2	1	1	0	0
42	0	0	2	1	0	0
43	0	1	2	1	0	2
44	0	2	3	1	0	1
45	0	0	4	1	0	0

Students	CORRECT USES				AVOIDANCE	
	GRVs	GRVs+V1	V1+BEN	V1+BEN+V2	V1+BEN	V1+BEN+V2
46	0	1	4	1	0	0
47	0	0	0	2	0	0
48	0	0	0	2	0	0
49	0	2	0	2	0	0
50	0	2	0	2	0	0
51	0	4	0	2	0	0
52	0	6	0	2	0	0
53	0	0	1	2	1	3
54	0	0	1	2	0	0
55	0	0	2	2	2	2
56	0	0	3	2	0	0
57	0	0	0	3	0	0
58	0	0	0	3	0	0
59	0	1	0	3	0	0
60	0	2	0	3	0	0
61	0	0	1	3	0	0
62	1	0	1	3	0	0
63	0	0	1	3	0	0
64	0	1	1	3	0	0
65	0	0	2	3	0	0
66	0	0	3	3	0	0
67	0	1	0	4	0	1
68	0	0	0	5	0	0
69	0	0	0	5	0	0
70	0	1	0	5	0	0
71	0	0	0	6	0	0
72	0	2	0	7	0	0



## Appendix 5.1 Suggested exercises for spoken Japanese

Hereafter, some suggested exercises will be introduced. All Japanese sentences should be written in the Japanese writing system in class, however, they are romanised in this thesis for convenience.

### [1] Quick revision for GRVs

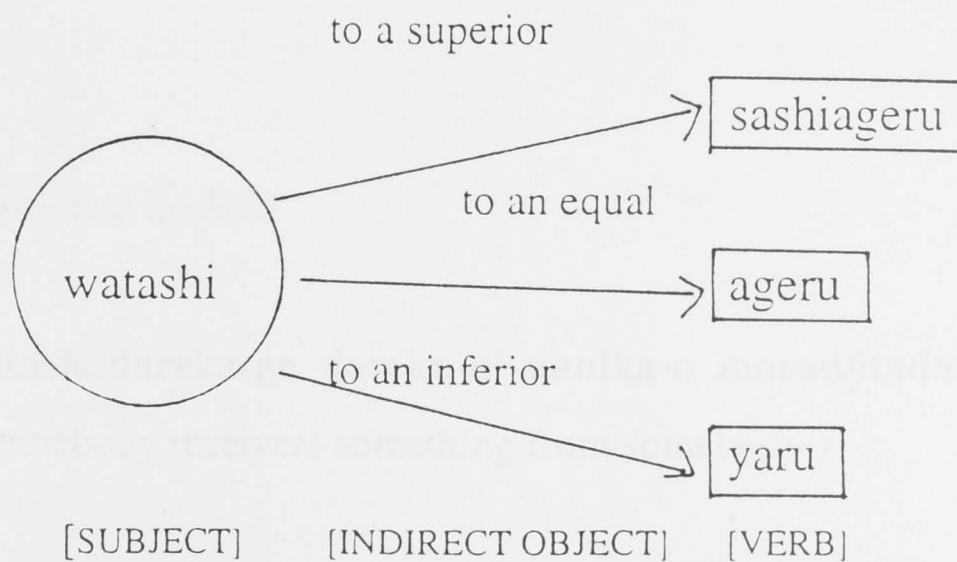
This practice is in fact a quick test for reminding the learner which GRV to use. The simple explanations and some example sentences are listed below. It should be noted that *watashi*, i.e. the speaker, includes anyone in an in-group and *watashi* is sometimes omitted (See Chapter 2). The sentence patterns show the plain form in present tense. However, it is also better to refer to the polite form and then, their past tense forms should be mentioned. Finally, the use of case markers with GRVs is reviewed.

#### Section 1.1 Review of the differences between GRVs

##### (1) *Yaru, ageru* and *sashiageru*

**Watashi/dareka-ga dareka-ni nanika-o yaru/ageru/sashiageru**

(I/somebody give/s something to somebody.)



(Watashi-ga) kodomo-ni riNgo-o yat-ta.

(I gave apples to a child.)

(Watashi-ga) tomodachi-ni riNgo-o age-ta.

(I gave apples to a friend.)

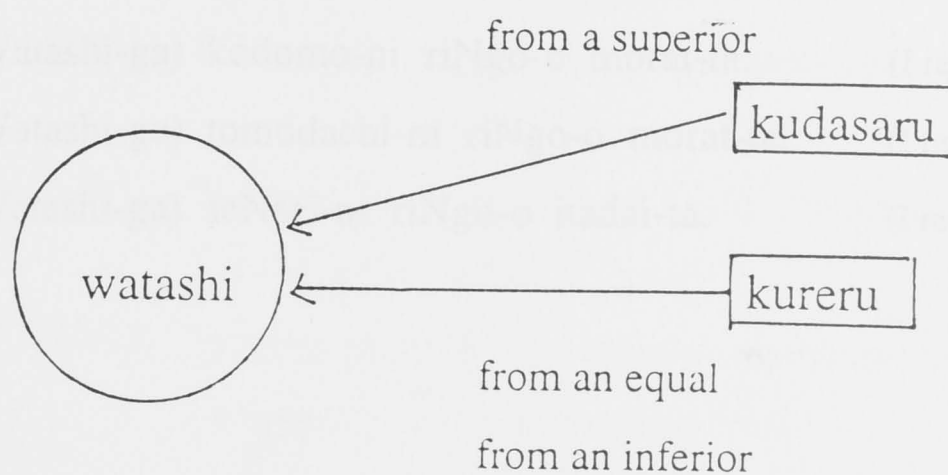
(Watashi-ga) seNsei-ni riNgo-o sashiage-ta.

(I gave apples to a teacher.)

(2) *Kureru* and *kudasaru*

**Dareka-ga watashi-ni nanika-o kureru/kudasaru**

(Somebody gives something to me.)



[INDIRECT OBJECT] [SUBJECT] [VERB]

Kodomo-ga (watashi-ni) riNgo-o kure-ta.

(A child gave apples to me.)

Tomodachi-ga (watashi-ni) riNgo-o kure-ta.

(A friend gave apples to me.)

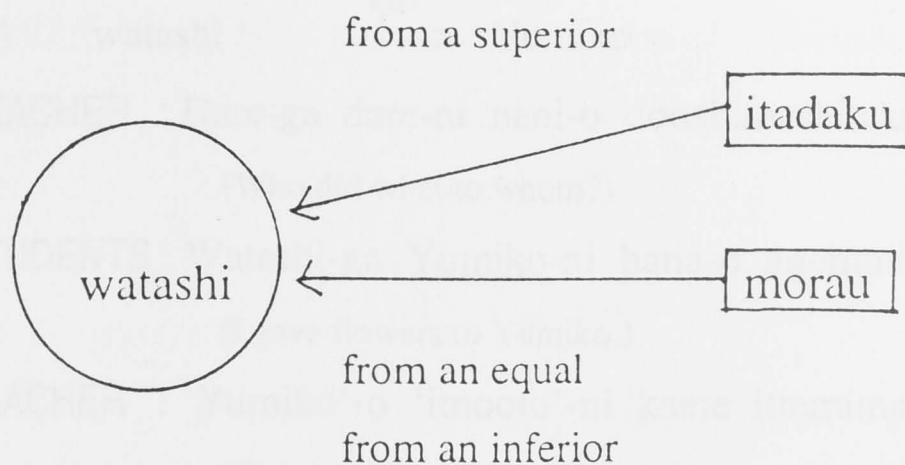
SeNsei-ga (watashi-ni) riNgo-o kudasat-ta.

(A teacher gave apples to me.)

(3) *Morau* and *itadaku*

**Watashi/dareka-ga dareka-ni nanika-o morau/itadaku.**

(I/somebody receive/s something from somebody.)



[SUBJECT]      [INDIRECT OBJECT]      [VERB]

- |   |                                     |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| (Watashi-ga) kodomo-ni riNgo-o morat-ta.    | (I received apples from a child.)   |
| (Watashi-ga) tomodachi-ni riNgo-o morat-ta. | (I received apples from a friend.)  |
| (Watashi-ga) seNsei-ni riNgo-o itadai-ta.   | (I received apples from a teacher.) |

## Section 1.2 Quick exercise for use of correct GRVs

The polite form in past tense is chosen because it is most commonly used in real conversation.

Sentence patterns:

**Watashi/dareka-ga dareka-ni nanika-o yaru/ageru/sashiageru**


(I/somebody give/s something to somebody.)

**Dareka-ga watashi-ni nanika-o kureru/kudasaru**

(Somebody gives something to me.)

**Watashi/dareka-ga dareka-ni nanika-o morau/itadaku.**

(I/somebody receive/s something from somebody.)

(1) watashi  -----> Yumiko

TEACHER : Dare-ga dare-ni nani-o dooshimashitaka.

(Who did what to whom?)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga Yumiko-ni hana-o **agemashita**.

(I gave flowers to Yumiko.)

TEACHER : 'Yumiko'-o 'imooto'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'Yumiko' to 'imooto'.)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga imooto-ni hana-o **yarimashita**♥

(I gave flowers to my younger sister.)

TEACHER : 'Imooto'-o 'seNsei'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'imooto' to 'seNsei'.)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga seNsei-ni hana-o **sashiagemashita**.

(I gave flowers to the teacher.)


TEACHER : 'Watashi'-o 'Yumiko'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'watashi' to 'Yumiko'.)

STUDENTS : Yumiko-ga seNsei-ni hana-o **sashiagemashita**.

(Yumiko gave flowers to the teacher.)

♥ It is worthwhile mentioning that some Japanese people may use *ageru* instead of *yaru*.

(2) Yumiko  -----> watashi

TEACHER : Dare-ga dare-ni nani-o dooshimashitaka.

(Who did what to whom?)

STUDENTS : Yumiko-ga watashi-ni hana-o **kuremashita**.

(Yumiko gave flowers to me.)

TEACHER : 'Watashi'-o 'imooto'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'watashi' to 'imooto'.)

STUDENTS : Yumiko-ga imooto-ni hana-o **kuremashita**.

(Yumiko gave flowers to my younger sister.)

TEACHER : 'Yumiko'-o 'seNsei'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'Yumiko' to 'seNsei'.)



STUDENTS : SeNsei-ga imooto-ni hana-o kudasaimashita.

(The teacher gave flowers to my younger sister.)

(3) watashi  Takashi

TEACHER : Dare-ga dare-ni nani-o moraimashitaka.

(Who received what from whom?)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga Takashi-ni hana-o moraimashita.

(I received flowers from Takashi.)

TEACHER : 'Takashi'-o 'imooto'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'Takashi' to 'imooto'.)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga imooto-ni hana-o moraimashita.

(I received flowers from my younger sister.)

TEACHER : 'Imooto'-o 'SeNsei'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'imooto' to 'seNsei'.)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga seNsei-ni hana-o itadakimashita.

(I received flowers from the teacher.)

TEACHER : 'Watashi'-o 'imooto'-ni kaete ittemimashoo.

(Change 'watashi' to 'imooto'.)

STUDENTS : Imooto-ga seNsei-ni hana-o itadakimashita.

(My younger sister received flowers from the teacher.)

### Section 1.3 Revision of the case markers as they are used with GRVs

(1) Kurisumasuniwa chichi ( ) seetaa ( ) agerutsumoridesu.

(I will give a jumper to my father this Christmas.)

(2) Watashi ( ) Yumiko ( ) chokoreeto ( ) moraimashita.

(I received chocolate from Yumiko.)

(3) KyoneNno watashino taNjoobini soba ( ) koinu ( ) kuremashita.

(My grandmother gave a puppy to me on my birthday last year.)

- (4) SeNsei ( ) sotsugyooshikino shashiN ( ) itadakimashita.  
(I received some photos of the graduation ceremony from the teacher.)
- (5) SeNjitsu, watashi ( ) Tanakasan ( ) haha-ga tsukutta appurupai ( )  
sashiagemashita. Suruto, Tanakasan ( ) oreini, biiru ( ) ichidaasu  
kudasaimashita.  
(Several days ago, I gave an apple pie made by my mother to Mr/Miss/Mrs. Tanaka.  
Then, Mr/Miss/Mrs. Tanaka gave a dozen bottles of beer to me in return.)

## [2] The concept of benefactive and the simpler structure (V1+BENEFACTIVE)

### Section 2.1 Explanation of benefactives

Benefactives are used when giving and receiving favourable actions. The pattern of the benefactives is 'te-form + GRV'. Benefactives, syntactically and semantically, behave in the same manner as the plain form and the honorific of the GRVs. Therefore, they have the same constraints as the GRVs. Some examples are shown.

#### (1) Doing a favour for someone

- |                                       |  |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Kodomo-ni riNgo-o mui-te yat-ta.      | (I peeled apples for a child as a favour.)   |
| Tomodachi-ni riNgo-o mui-te age-ta.   | (I peeled apples for a friend as a favour.)  |
| SeNsei-ni riNgo-o mui-te sashiage-ta. | (I bought apples for a teacher as a favour.) |

#### (2) Someone else doing a favour

- |                                      |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Kodomo-ga riNgo-o mui-te kure-ta.    | (A child peeled apples as a favour to me.)   |
| Tomodachi-ga riNgo-o mui-te kure-ta. | (A friend peeled apples as a favour to me.)  |
| SeNsei-ga riNgo-o mui-te kudasat-ta. | (A teacher peeled apples as a favour to me.) |

(3) Receiving a favour

Kodomo-ni riNgo-o mui-te morat-ta.	(I got a child to peel apples for me./A child peeled apples as a favour to me.)
Tomodachi-ni riNgo-o mui-te morat-ta.	(I got a friend to peel apples for me./ A friend peeled apples as a favour to me.)
SeNsei-ni riNgo-o mui-te itadai-ta.	(I got a teacher to peel apples for me./ A teacher bought apples as a favour to me.)

Section 2.2 Drills for benefactives

This practice focuses on the concept of benefactives, i.e. when they should be used and the syntactic structure (V1+BENEFACTIVE).

(1) Basic practice

A teacher shows the sentence patterns and these pictures below. Firstly, students should make sure what each picture describes, e.g. who/where the speaker is.

Sentence patterns:

**Watashi/dareka-ga dareka-ni nanika-o V + ~te yarimashita**

**~te agemashita**

**~te sashiagemashita**

(I/somebody did something as a favour for somebody.)

**Dareka-ga watashi-ni nanika-o V + ~te kuremashita**

**~te kudasaimashita**

(Somebody did something as a favour to me.)

Watashi/dareka-ga dareka-ni nanika-o V + ~te moraimashita  
 ~te itadakimashita

(I/somebody get(s) somebody to do something for me.)

Picture <1>

TEACHER : Dare-ga nani-o shi-te agemashitaka.

(Who did what?)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga booshi-o **tot-te** agemashita.

(I picked up his hat for him.)

Picture <2>

TEACHER : Dare-ga nani-o shi -te agemashitaka.

(Who did what?)

STUDENTS : Watashi-ga gaarufureNdo-ni purezeNto-o **kat-te** agemashita.

(I bought a present for my girl friend.)

Picture <3>

TEACHER : Dare-ga nani-o shi -te kuremashitaka.

(Who did what?)

STUDENTS : Tomodachi-ga okane-o **kashi-te** kuremashita.

(My friend lent me some money.)



<1>



<2>



<3>



Picture <4>

TEACHER : Dare-ga nani-o shi -te kuremashitaka.

(Who did what?)

STUDENTS : Tomodachi-ga ekimade **okut-te** kuremashita.

(My friend gave me a lift to the station.)

Picture <5>

TEACHER : Dare-ga nani-o shi -te kuremashitaka.

(Who did what?)

STUDENTS : Tomodachi-ga yuuhaN-o **todoke-te** kuremashita.

(My friend brought me dinner.)

Picture <6>

TEACHER : Dare-ni nani-o shi -te moraimashitaka.

(Who received what from whom?)

STUDENTS : Chichi-ni **home-te** moraimashita.

(I got my father to praise me.)



<4>



<5>



<6>

Picture <7>

TEACHER : Dare-ni nani-o shi -te moraimashitaka.

(Who received what from whom?)

STUDENTS : Haha-ni zuboN-o **naoshi-te moraimashita.**

(I got my mother to mend my trousers.)

Picture <8>

TEACHER : Dare-ni nani-o shi -te moraimashitaka.

(Who received what from whom?)

STUDENTS : SeNsei-ni suisenjoo-o **kai-te itadakimashita.**

(I got my teacher to write me a letter of recommendation.)

TEACHER : 'SeNsei'-o shugo-ni shite iimashoo.

(Put 'seNsei' to the subject position.)

STUDENTS : SeNsei-ga suisenjoo-o **kai-te kudasaimashita.**

(A teacher wrote me a letter of recommendation as a favour to me.)



<7>



<8>

(2) Conversation

The use of colloquial language is introduced here.

Sentence pattern

TEACHER : Are, kawaii shashiNdesunee. [chichi-ga okutta]

(Oh, it is a pretty photo, isn't it?) [My father sent it.]

STUDENTS : Ee, chichi-ga okut-te kuretaNdesu.

(Yes, my father sent it as a favour to me.)

Picture <1>

TEACHER : Are, atarashii kutsudesune.

[haha-ga katta]

(Oh, they are new shoes, aren't they?)

[My mother bought me.]

STUDENTS : Ee, haha-ga kat-te kuretaNdesu.

(Yes, my mother bought them for me.)

Picture <2>

TEACHER : Are, kireina hanatabadesune.

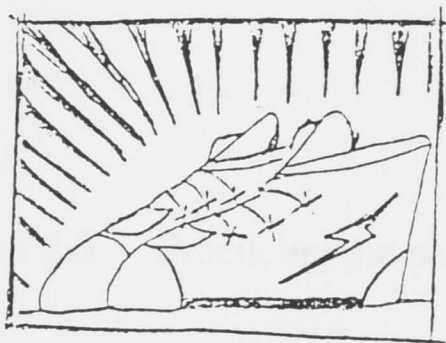
[booifureNdo-ga okutta]

(Oh, it is a beautiful bunch of flowers, isn't it?)

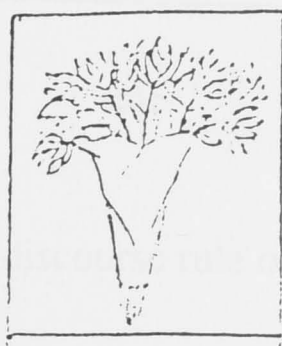
[My boyfriend sent it.]

STUDENTS : Ee, booifureNdo-ga oku-te kuretaNdesu.

(Yes, my boyfriend sent it to me.)



<1>



<2>

Picture <3>

TEACHER : Are, oishisoona keekidesune. [watashi-ga hahanotameni  
tsukutta]

(Oh, the cake looks tasty, doesn't it?) [I made it for my mother.]

STUDENTS : Ee, watashi-ga hahanotameni tsukut-te agetaNdesu.

(Yes, I made it as a favour for my mother.)

Picture <4> Practice for ~te morau

TEACHER : Are, sutekina seetaadesune. [obasan-ga aNda]

(Oh, it is a nice jumper, isn't it?) [My aunt knitted it.]

STUDENTS : Ee, obasan-ni aN-de morattaNdesu.

(Yes, my aunt knitted it for me.)

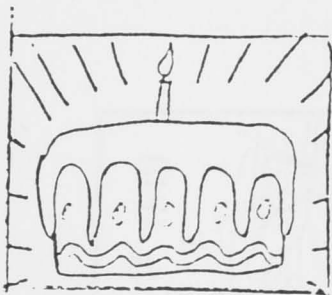
Picture <5> Practice for ~te morau

TEACHER : Are, subarashii daiyanoyubiwadesune. [booifureNdo-ga katta]

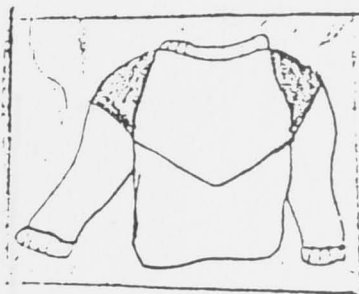
(Oh, it is a wonderful diamond ring, isn't it?) [My boyfriend bought it.]

STUDENTS : Ee, booifureNdo-ni kat-te morattaNdesu.

(I got my boyfriend to buy it for me.)



<3>



<4>



<5>

### Section 2.3 Practicing the use of the discourse rule of benefactives

The discourse rule of benefactives, i.e. when they should not be used, is introduced in this practice. Because of the benefactive reflecting the speaker's subjectivity, ~te ageru, should be given special treatment when it is used in an interrogative sentence. As I have discussed



in Chapter 2, the sentence (a) is grammatically correct. However, it is too condescending and could be considered offensive. It is better to avoid this and the alternative wording, *o+V+mashooka*, shown in sentence (b) should be taught.

(a) SeNsei, shashiN-o **tot-te age-mashooka**.

(Teacher, shall I take some photos as a favour, for you?)

(b) SeNsei, shashiN-o **o-tori-shimashooka**.

(Teacher, shall I take some photos for you?)

Sentence pattern

STUDENTS : (name), OBJ-o **o+V+shimashooka**.

TEACHER : Arigatoo.

Picture <1>

STUDENTS : Tanaka seNsei, nimotsu-o **o-mochi-shimashooka**.

(Mr. Tanaka, shall I carry the bag?)

TEACHER : Arigatoo. (Yes, thank you.)



< 1 >

Picture <2>

STUDENTS : Tanaka seNsei, koNpuutaa-o o-naoshi-shimashooka.

(Mr. Tanaka, shall I repair the computer?)

TEACHER : Arigatoo. (Yes, thank you.)

Picture <3>

STUDENTS : Nekono o-sewao-shimashooka.

(Shall I look after your cat?)

TEACHER : Arigatoo. (Yes, thank you.)



<2>



<3>

### [3] V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2

When students have reached to the developmental stage of being confident with V1+BENEFACTIVE, the more complicated structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2 should be introduced. When students use benefactives there is a tendency to omit them while concentrating on getting the grammar correct. However, since it is extremely important to include them, I will now introduce a practice for this structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2.

(1) Basic

TEACHER : Tomodachi-ga watashino hikkoshi-o tetsudaudeshoo. [kureru]

(My friend will help me to move.)

STUDENTS : tetsudat-**te kureru**-deshoo.

TEACHER : YumikosaN-ga ryokoo-o shiteiruida, TakashisaN-ga pettono  
sewaosuruto omoimasu. [ageru]

(While Yumiko is travelling, I think that Takashi will look after her pets.)

STUDENTS : sewaoshi-**te ageru**-to omoimasu.

TEACHER : Kotoshino booifureNdono taNjoobi-ni sapuraizu paatii-o  
hirakooto kaNgaeteimasu. [ageru]

(I am planning to give a surprise party for my boyfriend's birthday  
this year.)

STUDENTS : hirai-**te age**-yooto kaNgaeteimasu.

TEACHER : Kitto ryoushiN-ga ekimade tsureteikuhazudesu. [kureru]

(Surely, my parents ought to be able to give us a lift to the station.)

STUDENTS : tsureteit-**te kureru**-hazudesu.

TEACHER : SamukuN-ni eigo-o oshietehoshiiNdesu. [morau]

(I want Sam to teach me English.)

STUDENTS : oshie-**te morai**-taiNdesu.

TEACHER : AnoseNsei-ga TakashisaNnotameni suiseNjoo-o kakudarooka.

[kudasau]

(I wonder if the teacher is writing a letter of recommendation for Takashi.)

STUDENTS : kai-**te kudasau**-darooka.

TEACHER : Hashimoto seNsei-ni watashino hoshooniN-ni nattehoshiito  
omooteimasu. [itadaku]

(I think that I want Mr. Hashimoto to be my guarantor.)

STUDENTS : nat-**te itadaki**-taito omotteimasu.

(2) Relative clause

TEACHER : Chichi-ga kuruma-o kashimashita. Sono kuruma-de Shidonii-  
made doraibu-o shimashita.

(My father lent me a car. I drove to Sydney in that car.)

STUDENTS : Chichi-ga **kashi-te kureta**-kuruma-de Shidonii-made doraibu-o  
shimashita.

(I drove to Sydney in the car that my father lent me.)

TEACHER : Kyoo okashi-ga todokimashita. Haha-ga nihoN kara  
okurimashita.

(I received some snacks today. My mother sent them from Japan.)

STUDENTS : Kyoo haha-ga nihoN kara **okut-te kureta**-okashi-ga  
todokimashita.

(Today I received snacks which my mother sent from Japan.)

TEACHER : Takashi-ga koNpuutaa-o naoshimashita. Yumiko-wa sono  
koNpuutaa-de ima shukudai-o shiteimasu.

(Takashi repaired the computer. Yumiko is now doing her homework on  
that computer.)

STUDENTS : Yumiko-wa Takashi-ga naoshi-**te ageta**-koNpuutaa-de ima  
shukudai-o shiteimasu.

(Yumiko is now doing her homework on the computer that Takashi repaired.)



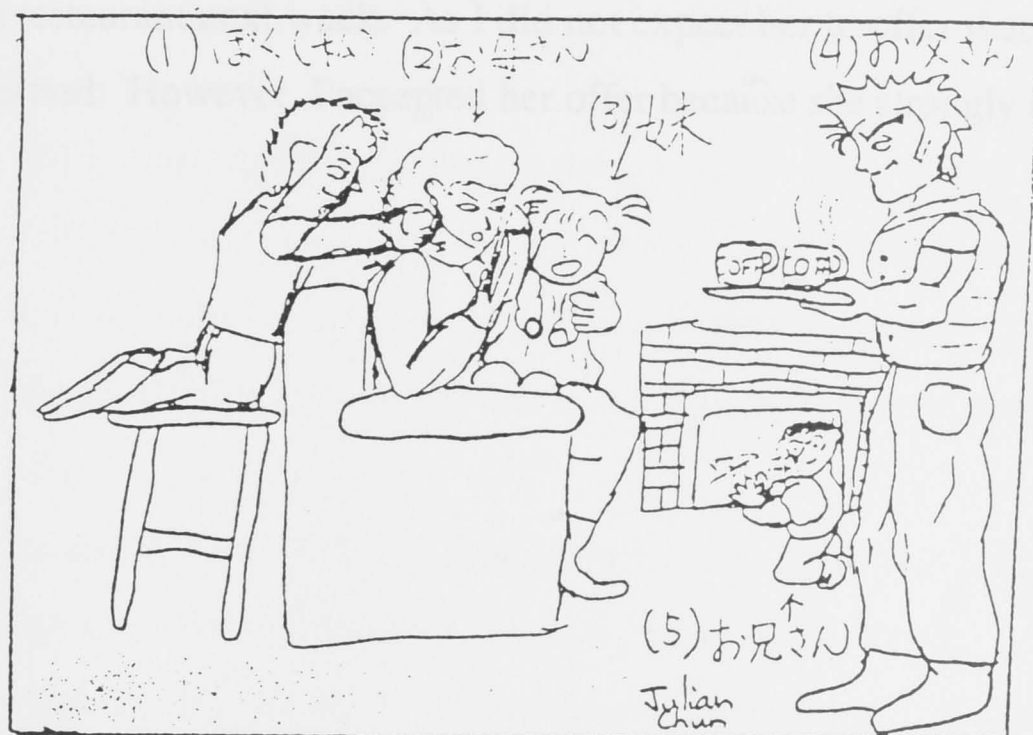
The first two dialogues may be transformed to use the *~te morau* form in which case, the case markers should also be changed.

#### [4] Test

Once the student finishes the practice for the more complicated structure, V1+BENEFACTIVE+V2, an exercise to summarise their learning should be given.

##### (1) Describing a picture

Students have to describe all events in the picture from each person's point of view.



- 1) Boku (I)
- 2) Haha (mother)
- 3) Imooto (younger sister)
- 4) Chichi (father)
- 5) Ani (elder brother)

(2) Briefing test

Students are required to read the following passage and then to describe events using GRVs and benefactives as much as possible.

Yumiko is my best friend. She has a bad flu and has been absent from the university for a week. I wanted to do something for her. So I went to a flower shop and intended to buy a beautiful bunch of flowers. But, as the flower shop was closed today, I could not get one for her. Then, I decided to cook dinner for her and I visited her this afternoon. Yumiko's condition seemed to be getting better. I cooked her favourite dishes, *teriyaki* chicken, potato salad and *miso* soup. She was so happy. After dinner, I showed her the lecture-notes which she missed last week. She was so glad to have me there and promised to take me to a restaurant next week. As I did not expect her to offer that to me, I was surprised. However, I accepted her offer because she strongly insisted.

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